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*The* CATHOLIC  
EDUCATIONAL  
*Review*

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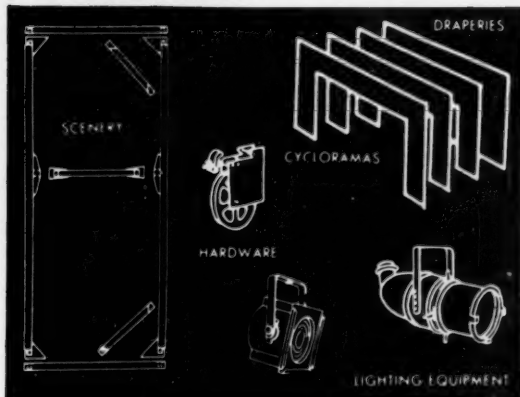
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# REQUIREMENTS FOR THE MASTER'S DEGREE WITH A MAJOR IN EDUCATION—PART I

By Wylma R. Curtin\*

## STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

THE STATUS OF THE AMERICAN school system at all educational levels is a problem which is currently attracting the concerted attention of federal and local government, private industry, the family—indeed every aspect of the society of our nation. Rightly, the school is examining many aspects of itself at this time.

It may be expected that the leaders of our school personnel include those who advance their own education to the attainment of a graduate degree—a degree beyond the bachelor's level. A portion of this group who are influential in determining both the policy and the practice of our school system at all grade levels are those members of our school personnel who attain a graduate degree with a major in Education. It is likely that these individuals tend to reflect the influence of the programs of graduate study to which they are exposed.

Thus it is of value to raise the question: what is the nature of the Master's degree with a major in Education as it is being offered in the Catholic institutions of higher learning in the United States today?

## REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Attention has been given to the problems associated with the Master's degree by many writers in the field during the last quarter century.

A Committee of the Association of American Universities presented recommendations on the purposes, standards and administration of the Master's degree which attracted wide spread attention at the time of the report in 1935 and which have continued to be cited with approval in a number of articles published since that date.<sup>1</sup> The Committee composed of the Deans of the Graduate Schools of The

\* Wylma R. Curtin, Ph.D., is associate professor of Education at The Catholic University of America. The second and concluding part of this article will appear in our March, 1959, issue.

<sup>1</sup> The Association of American Universities, "Problems Relating to the Master's Degree," *Journal of Proceedings and Addresses*, XXXVII (1935), 32-34.



Catholic University of America, the Universities of Minnesota, Missouri and Texas noted that the standards were not mandatory but represented the consensus of opinion of the American Association of Universities and were offered as a guide for interested institutions in the development and maintenance of standards for the Master's degree. Because of its importance and influence, this entire report is re-presented at this time.

Your Committee recognizes the confusion that exists with regard to the Master's degree. The confusion is particularly evident in conceptions of the purposes of the degree, the standards for the degree, the nomenclature of the degree, and the administration of the degree.

#### *Purposes*

The Master's degree is variously described as a research degree, a professional degree, a teacher's degree, and a cultural degree. The work included in the requirements for the degree is regarded as preparation for further graduate work, preparation for the practice of some profession (including teaching), as an extension of the cultural objectives ascribed to the Bachelor's degree, or as a period of advanced study.

The Committee is of the opinion that the work for the Master's degree may justly serve any or all of these objectives and that attempts to characterize the work for the Master's degree exclusively on the basis of one or the other of the objectives given above is likely to prove artificial and futile.

Your Committee is of the opinion that the Master's degree should represent the culmination of at least five years of college and university work, or the equivalent, in the course of which the student (1) attains a special competency in one or more fields of knowledge as judged by his information and his skills, and (2) develops the power to think independently and constructively, that is, to find, organize, and evaluate evidence on a topic in his special field and to formulate and defend a definite conclusion. In such a program the fifth or graduate year should emphasize the attainment of such special competency, encourage independence of study, self-activity, and freedom for development, and arouse, re-create, or intensify enthusiasm for some worthy field of human endeavor. The graduate year should be a stimulating and "broadening experience rather than merely a dogged attempt to fulfil academic requirements inspired by tradition."

Your Committee does not consider a year of undergraduate work, professional or non-professional, equivalent to the fifth year, or graduate year, described above.

### *Standards*

1. Prerequisites: The graduate year for a Master's degree conceived as above, whether designated or undesignated, should be based upon a Bachelor's degree from a recognized college regarded as standard by the institution and by a regional or general accrediting board, and upon an adequate amount of underlying undergraduate preparation, including advanced preparation in the major subject or subjects.

Where the undergraduate preparation has been deficient, because it is too narrowly specialized or because it lacks prerequisites for graduate work in the special field, such deficiencies should be met in addition to the normal requirements for the graduate year, either before admission to the graduate school or before admission to candidacy for the Master's degree.

Students ranking low in their undergraduate work should be discouraged from attempting to attain a Master's degree.

2. Residence: Residence of at least one full academic year, or the strict equivalent in summer sessions, at the institution conferring the degree should be required.

3. Content: The work in the graduate year should not consist of a haphazard collection of subjects but should be a unified program with a definite objective, at least half of which should be in a single field. No work open to Freshmen or Sophomores should be credited, and a material part of the work should be designed strictly for graduates.

4. Program: The five-year program for a Master's degree without designation should include a considerable breadth of training in undergraduate study. A Master's degree with designation may be awarded for a narrower training.

5. Examination: A final general examination, written or oral or both, covering at least the work offered in the graduate year in the major field and designed to test power and correlation rather than detailed information, should be required.

6. Transfer of Credits: If a transfer of credit is permitted, it may reduce the course requirement but not the residence, and should be included in the final general examination.

7. Credit by Correspondence: Graduate credit toward a Master's degree should not be allowed for correspondence.

8. Thesis: Your Committee recommends that a thesis, which may be of a research, expository, critical, or creative type, be included as a requirement for the Master's degree. The main purpose of a thesis should be to encourage the student to use independently and constructively the information, skills, and powers with which he has become acquainted, and to furnish objective evidence of his ability to utilize them. The Committee recognizes that other means than a thesis may serve these purposes but believes that, as a rule, a thesis represents the best feasible means of attaining the objectives indicated.

9. Honorary Degrees: Your Committee reaffirms the principle contained in the recommendations of the Committee on Academic and Professional Higher Degrees as follows: In general, degrees conferred in course should not be granted *honoris causa*.

#### *Nomenclature*

There is an increasing tendency to establish new Master's degrees. Your Committee reaffirms the principle contained in the report of the Committee on Academic and Professional Higher Degrees:

1. The multiplication of degrees is to be avoided.
2. A Bachelor who completes a second baccalaureate curriculum should receive a second baccalaureate degree rather than a Master's degree.
3. In appropriate cases the M.A. or M.S. may be supplemented by a qualifying phrase.

#### *Administration*

Your Committee recommends that the administration of the Master's degree be centralized in the graduate school, with due care that group interests are properly represented and sympathetically heard. It is of the opinion that the division of the administration among schools or departments may result in lowering standards and may artificially restrict the combination of subjects that students may pursue by the development of barriers along college or departmental lines.<sup>2</sup>

At a later date the North Central Association expressed concern about the organization, requirements, and quality of Master's degrees

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<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*

being offered by a large number of institutions which were new in their experience in graduate work.<sup>3</sup> The North Central Association presented recommendations and guides similar to those of the Association of American Universities for the establishment of Master's programs. In noting that the number of graduate degrees more than doubled between 1940 and 1950, Anderson and Richardson pointed out that accrediting agencies have not established specific standards for determining the conditions under which a Master's degree program justifies accreditation.<sup>4</sup> These authors presented thirteen bases of evaluation "in the hope that institutions . . . will be helped in their deliberations by a set of criteria for judging the quality of Master's degree work."<sup>5</sup> In 1951 the National Society for the Study of Education presented what is no doubt, one of the most thorough and comprehensive treatments of the multiple facets of graduate study in Education.<sup>6</sup>

A number of studies have reported surveys of status of Master's programs in many different institutions at various times. In 1932 a committee which included leading faculty members of Harvard, Chicago, Columbia, Wellesley, Texas, Iowa, North Carolina, Buffalo and Yale made a joint report on the problem of requirements for the Master's degree.<sup>7</sup> Basing their conclusions on the practices of more than sixty-five institutions the committee noted pointedly that "it is clear that the standards according to which the M.A. and M.S. are at present conferred in America vary abnormally."<sup>8</sup> That little has been done to reduce this heterogeneity is evident from Hammond's very recent comment that "the label 'Master's' covers such a wide and confusing diversity of programs, purposes and subject matters that one wonders whether the same label can be applied to all of them without equivocation."<sup>9</sup>

<sup>3</sup>E. B. Stouffer, "Conditions Surrounding the Offering of the Master's Degree," *The North Central Association Quarterly*, XII (1937), 205-213.

<sup>4</sup>Earl W. Anderson and O. T. Richardson, "Bases for Evaluating the Master's Program," *Journal of Higher Education*, XXIV (1953), 376-381.

<sup>5</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 376.

<sup>6</sup>Nelson B. Henry (ed.), *Graduate Study in Education*, Fiftieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1951), pp. 1-369.

<sup>7</sup>Tucker Brook et al., "Requirements for the Master's Degree," *Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors*, XVIII (1932), 169-185.

<sup>8</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 170.

<sup>9</sup>Lewis M. Hammond, "The Master's Degree Program," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XLIV (1958), 65.

Adequate selection of graduate students has been a continuing subject of concern. Brink held:

By permitting mediocre and inadequately prepared students to undertake graduate work, injustice is done not only to the students but to society as well. It is obviously unfair to encourage young people to embark upon graduate study unless they are intellectually qualified for it, unless their undergraduate preparation is of such character as to make further study profitable, and unless they possess essential personality characteristics. Moreover, society has a right to expect of those to whom advanced degrees are granted a type of leadership and scholarship which is probably beyond the possibility of achievement for some who seek admission to graduate schools. Therefore, graduate schools face the problem of developing more selective admission procedures and of encouraging only those to continue for whom there is reasonable probability of success.<sup>10</sup>

Based on data from eighty-eight institutions (divided almost equally between state and private institutions and all of which are recognized by the Association of American Universities) which grant the Master's degree, Brink determined that the major factors used for the selection and admission of graduate students are the quality and quantity of undergraduate preparation and the rating of the institution from which the student received the Bachelor's degree. Brink cited evidence that these factors have not provided an adequate basis in forecasting success in graduate work and pointed to the need for scientific studies dealing with the development of more reliable methods of selecting students who can attain success in graduate work and in their future teaching.<sup>11</sup> Others have emphasized that since

careful selection of students for graduate work seems essential[,] . . . college authorities . . . should help [the student] to see if he is qualified as shown by his undergraduate record and by the results of intelligence or aptitude tests. . . . He should be shown . . . , in some cases, that the requirements are beyond his ability. The more he can be helped to analyze his own situation and arrive at his own conclusions, the better. However, it is recognized that . . .

<sup>10</sup> William J. Brink, "Selecting Graduate Students," *Journal of Higher Education*, X (1939), 425.

<sup>11</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 425-430.

in some cases the institution must make a negative decision against the opposition of the student.<sup>12</sup>

In a detailed and carefully reported survey of trends in the admission of applicants to graduate study in Education based on fifty-one private and state institutions, Shelton and Fishback concluded:

There is a decided lack of information on prognosis of success in graduate study in education. The American Council on Education, as well as other agencies in the field, makes clear that "few, if any, final and complete answers" have been found to problems in prognosis of success in graduate study, but the answers which have been found should be helpful to counselors and others in the field.<sup>13</sup>

Even among state universities which are required to be relatively lenient in their requirements for admission to graduate study considerable selective screening occurs before admission to candidacy for a Master's degree.<sup>14 15</sup>

While recognizing that each institution has its own peculiar problems to face in the matter of admissions, Shelton and Fishback contend that there are certain concepts and principles of admission which may be utilized more or less universally. Validation data were not available for the numerous admission procedures which were listed but the wide variety of selection and screening devices which are described in some detail in this study may offer constructive ideas to the faculty of a graduate department of Education.<sup>16</sup>

Although in 1935 the Conference of Deans of Southern Graduate Schools adopted the standard that a reading knowledge of at least one foreign language should be required for the Master's degree, a survey in 1940 of the practice in the institutions compris-

<sup>12</sup> Anderson and Richardson, *Journal of Higher Education*, XXIV, 377-379.

<sup>13</sup> William E. Shelton and Woodson W. Fishback, "Current Practices of Admission for Graduate Study in Education," *College and University*, XXVIII (1953), 366, citing *Predicting Success in Professional Schools*, American Council on Education Studies (Washington, D. C.: The American Council on Education, 1949), pp. 16-23.

<sup>14</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 366.

<sup>15</sup> Q. A. W. Rohrbach, "Graduate Work Toward the Degree of Master of Education," *University of Pittsburgh School of Education Journal*, VI (1931), 103-107.

<sup>16</sup> Shelton and Fishback, *College and University*, XXVIII, 363-380.

ing this Conference found that among the institutions granting the M.A. and M.S. degrees, 45 per cent required a foreign language examination and an additional 25 per cent made the examination discretionary. However, in no case did the degrees of M.A. in Education or M.S. in Education include any foreign language examination.<sup>17</sup> In describing the historical background of the foreign language requirement, Drennon commented on its cultural value and its value as a tool of research, and advanced reasons both for and against the retention of the foreign language requirement.<sup>18</sup>

A number of the studies dealing with the requirements for the Master's degree have weighed the merits of the research versus the non-research Master's program. Although a variety of institutions offer a non-research program, the writers in this field commonly decry the practice.

The 1932 report of the committee of leading faculty members of Harvard, Chicago, Columbia, Wellesley, Texas, Iowa, North Carolina, Buffalo and Yale stated, "This purpose [research training] is desired by all the members of the committee and by the authorities who have offered advice."<sup>19</sup> Shortly thereafter the recommendations of the Association of American Universities included a thesis as an essential element of the Master's program.<sup>20</sup> The same position is held in more recent writings when Chiappetta supports Abraham Flexner in clearly distinguishing the roles of collegiate and university education, holding that the Master's degree should be distinctively a research degree and that "graduate instruction must first, last and always be rooted in the research process. . . . If we continue to demand post-A.B. work for prestige and salary purposes, that is no reason for negating a difference between graduate and undergraduate work."<sup>21</sup> Other writers state unequivocally "The program should demand from each Master's student a demonstration of his research ability. . . . The ability to attack a genuine problem successfully and to draw valid and significant conclusions from the data involved should be demanded."<sup>22</sup>

<sup>17</sup> Herbert Drennon, "Modern Language Requirement for Advanced Degrees," *Peabody Journal of Education*, XVIII (1941), 340.

<sup>18</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 340-348.

<sup>19</sup> Brook, *Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors*, XVIII, 175.

<sup>20</sup> *Supra*, p. 4.

<sup>21</sup> Michael Chiappetta, "Higher Education: Graduate or Undergraduate?," *School and Society*, LXXVII (1953), 309.

<sup>22</sup> Anderson and Richardson, *Journal of Higher Education*, XXIV, 378.



In a discussion of the sharp conflict between the requirements for teacher certification and the requirements of our graduate schools, McCutcheon acknowledges the belief "that training in research is also among the best bases for training teachers."<sup>23</sup> Amplifying his position, McCutcheon states:

. . . I venture the suggestion that it [a thesis] had some merit. It made plain to the writer that the establishment of any truth was a difficult process. It also showed the writer some of the ways in which a portion of truth might be established. This I firmly believe, is a value of some magnitude for a teacher to possess. I do not believe that course work alone creates this value so surely.<sup>24</sup>

Holding that "no one can overestimate the importance to the professional man of the love for improvement through research,"<sup>25</sup> Charters stated that for the Master's degree "whether the pattern is preparatory or terminal, the thesis is of such importance that it cannot wisely be ignored."<sup>26</sup> The evaluation has been made that "educational research . . . not only is a means of implementing an educational philosophy or program but also is one procedure for examining human experience to discover its fundamental characteristics and, within experience, to discern basic human values."<sup>27</sup>

Noting the enormous current demand for a larger number of teachers, the authors of two recent articles warn that in trying to supply this *quantity*, Master's programs must be careful to maintain their *quality* and recommend the retention of a research degree for this purpose.<sup>28 29</sup>

<sup>23</sup> Roger P. McCutcheon, "The Master's Degree and the Teacher Requirements," *School and Society*, LXXIV (1951), 178.

<sup>24</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 180.

<sup>25</sup> W. W. Charters, "Professional and Scientific Objectives of Graduate Study in Education," *Graduate Study in Education*, ed. Nelson B. Henry, Fiftieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1951), p. 35.

<sup>26</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 40.

<sup>27</sup> T. R. McConnell, "Organization Within the University of Graduate Work in Education," *Graduate Study in Education*, ed. Nelson B. Henry, Fiftieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1951), p. 23.

<sup>28</sup> Napier Wilt, "Higher Degrees and Lower Standards," *Journal of General Education*, X (1957), 99-103.

<sup>29</sup> Hammond, *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XLIV, 65-70.

During the compilation of his valuable yearly bibliographies of Master's theses in Education, Lampke surveyed the prevalence of scholarly papers among all the institutions in the United States which granted a Master's degree with a major in Education during 1951-1952.<sup>30</sup> He found that 29 per cent always required a permanent paper; 5 percent never made such a requirement; and in 66 per cent the requirement was optional. In "optional" institutions only about 11 per cent of the Master's students produced a scholarly paper which was permanently filed in institutional archives.<sup>31</sup> Lampke reported that "representatives of institutions where the thesis is optional have expressed concern because such a small proportion of their students were taking the thesis route to the degree."<sup>32</sup>

A survey of all the members of the Association of American Universities which granted a Master's degree with a major in Education enumerated the requirements for such degrees during the academic year 1938-1939.<sup>33</sup> Another summary of trends in the Master's program in Education was based on reports as of December, 1944, from the graduate departments of Education of seventy public and private institutions.<sup>34</sup> These two studies provide comparative data which can be related to the current requirements in the Catholic institutions which grant a Master's degree with a major in Education.

#### COLLECTION OF DATA

The Catholic universities which offer a Master's degree with a major in Education were identified from the directories of the National Catholic Welfare Conference<sup>35</sup> and the U. S. Office of Education,<sup>36</sup> and from listings by Good,<sup>37</sup> Coffey,<sup>38</sup> Irwin<sup>39</sup> and Hurt.<sup>40</sup> The identification of additional pertinent universities was

<sup>30</sup> Tom Arthur Lampke, "The Extent and Kinds of Master's Research in Education," *The High School Journal*, XXXVIII (1954), 37-43.

<sup>31</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 39.

<sup>32</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 37.

<sup>33</sup> J. Minor Gwynn and William T. Gruhn, "Requirements for Master's Degrees for Students in Education," *School and Society*, LIII (1941), 93-96.

<sup>34</sup> Carter V. Good, "The Master's Degree in Education," *School and Society*, LXI (1945), 186-187.

<sup>35</sup> *Directory of Catholic Colleges and Schools in the United States* (Washington, D. C.: National Catholic Welfare Conference, 1957).

<sup>36</sup> Ernest V. Hollis and Herbert C. Mayer, *Directory: Colleges and Universities Offering Graduate Courses Leading to Master's and Doctor's Degrees 1940-1945* (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Office of Education, 1945).

made from supplementary information obtained through a questionnaire addressed to the head of the department of each university identified from the initial listings.

The appropriate catalogues of all identified institutions for the academic year of 1957-1958, together with relevant mimeographed materials supplied by the heads of the Departments of Education, were examined in detail. Preliminary tables of the requirements for the Master's degree with a major in Education were compiled from these published source materials. A copy of the preliminary tables, containing the information pertinent to each institution, was submitted to the review of the head (or delegated faculty member) of the Department of Education of each university. The return of the preliminary tables, checked as being correct or containing additions and revisions applicable as of May, 1958, from 93 per cent of the universities insures that the data are as current as possible. The data for the remaining 7 per cent of the universities are based exclusively on the published source materials of the university for the academic year of 1957-1958.<sup>41</sup>

The Catholic institutions of higher learning in the United States which offer a Master's degree with a major in Education, together with the degree which is granted and the administrative control of the degree, are listed alphabetically by state in Table 1. For each institution the requirements for admission to graduate study in Education are reported in Table 2, while the requirements for the completion of the Master's degree with a major in Education are presented in Tables 3 and 4.

In order to obtain compactness, the following abbreviations are used in the tables.

<sup>41</sup>The co-operation and assistance of deans, heads of departments and other faculty members of the various universities are greatly appreciated. The occurrence of any error in these data is the responsibility of the author. While detailed summaries are presented in this article, the reader is advised to refer to the catalogue of the given university for authoritative information.

<sup>37</sup>Carter V. Good, *A Guide to Colleges, Universities and Professional Schools in the United States* (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1945).

<sup>38</sup>Jack C. Coffey (ed.), *Patterson's American Educational Directory* (Wilmette, Ill.: Educational Directories Inc., 1953).

<sup>39</sup>Mary Irwin (ed.), *American Universities and Colleges* (7th ed.; Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1956).

<sup>40</sup>Huber William Hurt, *The College Blue Book* (6th ed.; New York: Christian E. Burkel, 1950).

Table 1, column 4: CGS = Committee on Graduate Study  
 GD = Graduate Division  
 GDt = Graduate Department  
 GS = Graduate School  
 SED = School of Education

Table 2, column 2: C = Coeducational  
 M = Men only  
 W = Women only

column 3: N = No  
 Y = Yes

column 5: av = average  
 min = minimum

column 6: number of credits accepted for advanced standing

Table 3, column 3: s = summer session

column 5: no. + T( ) = Course credits plus Thesis with  
 credits for Thesis in parenthesis

column 9: P = Permit minor outside Education  
 R = Require minor outside Education  
 N = No minor permitted outside Education

Table 4, column 3 through 7: N = No

Y = Yes

O = Optional

Any column of any table: ns = not stated.

TABLE 1

CATHOLIC EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS WHICH  
 OFFER A MASTER'S DEGREE WITH A  
 MAJOR IN EDUCATION

Code Number (1)	Institution, City, Religious Order (2)	Degree Granted (3)	Adminis- trative Organi- zation (4)
CALIFORNIA			
1	Dominican College, San Rafael, Dominican Sisters	MA MS in Ed	GS
2	Immaculate Heart College, Los Angeles, Sisters of the Immaculate Heart of Mary	MS in Ed	SED
3	Loyola University, Los Angeles, Society of Jesus	MA	GD
4	Mt. St. Mary's College, Los Angeles, Sisters of St. Joseph of Carondelet	MA	GS
5	San Francisco College for Women, San Francisco, Religious of the Sacred Heart	MA MS in Ed	GD
6	University of San Francisco, San Francisco, Society of Jesus	MA	GD
CONNECTICUT			
7	Fairfield University, Fairfield, Society of Jesus	MA	GDt
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA			
8	The Catholic University of America, Washington, Hierarchy of the United States	MA	GS
ILLINOIS			
9	De Paul University, Chicago, Vincentian Fathers	MA MEd	GS
10	Loyola University, Chicago, Society of Jesus	MA MEd	GS

TABLE 1-Continued

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
INDIANA			
11	University of Notre Dame, Notre Dame, Congregation of Holy Cross	MA	GS
KANSAS			
12	St. Mary College, Xavier, Sisters of Charity	MS in Ed	GD
LOUISIANA			
13	Loyola University, New Orleans, Society of Jesus	MEd	GD
14	Xavier University, New Orleans, Sisters of the Blessed Sacrament	MA	GS
MARYLAND			
15	Loyola College, Baltimore, Society of Jesus	MA MEd	GD
MASSACHUSETTS			
16	Boston College, Chestnut Hill, Society of Jesus	MEd MA in T	GS
MICHIGAN			
17	University of Detroit, Detroit, Society of Jesus	MA	GS
MINNESOTA			
18	College of St. Thomas, St. Paul, Archdiocesan Clergy	MEd MA in SSA	CGS
MISSOURI			
19	St. Louis University, St. Louis, Society of Jesus	MA MEd	GS
NEBRASKA			
20	Creighton University, Omaha, Society of Jesus	MA MS in Ed	GS
NEW HAMPSHIRE			
21	Rivier College, Nashua, Sisters of the Presentation of Mary	MEd	GD
NEW JERSEY			
22	Seton Hall University, South Orange, Diocesan	MA	SEd
NEW YORK			
23	Canisius College, Buffalo, Society of Jesus	MS in Ed	GD
24	College of St. Rose, Albany, Sisters of St. Joseph of Carondelet	MS in Ed	GD
25	Fordham University, New York, Society of Jesus	MA MS in Ed	SEd
26	Mount St. Joseph Teachers College, Buffalo, Sisters of St. Joseph	MS in Ed	GDt
27	Niagara University, Niagara University, Vincentian Fathers	MA MEd	GS
28	St. Bonaventure University, St. Bonaventure, Franciscan Fathers	MA MS MS in Ed	SEd

TABLE 1-Continued

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
29	St. John's University, Brooklyn Priests of the Congregation of the Mission	MS MS in Ed	SEd
30	Siena College, Loudonville, Franciscan Fathers	MS in Ed	GS
OHIO			
31	John Carroll University, Cleveland, Society of Jesus	MA	GD
32	St. John College, Cleveland, Diocesan	MS in Ed	GD
33	Xavier University, Cincinnati, Society of Jesus	MEd	GS
OREGON			
34	University of Portland, Portland, Congregation of Holy Cross	MA MEd MEd	
PENNSYLVANIA			
35	Duquesne University, Pittsburgh, Congregation of the Holy Ghost	MS in Ed MEd	GS
36	Marywood College, Scranton, Sisters, Servants of the Immaculate Heart of Mary	MS	GD
37	University of Scranton, Scranton, Society of Jesus	MA MS in Ed	GD
38	Villanova University, Villanova, Augustinian Fathers	MA	GD
TEXAS			
39	Incarnate Word College, San Antonio, Sisters of Charity of the Incarnate Word	MA MEd	GD
40	Our Lady of the Lake College, San Antonio, Sisters of Divine Providence	MEd	SEd
VERMONT			
41	St. Michael's College, Winooski Park, Society of Saint Edmund	MA MA in T	GD
WASHINGTON			
42	Gonzaga University, Spokane, Society of Jesus	MA MEd	SEd
43	Seattle University, Seattle, Society of Jesus	MA MEd	SEd
WISCONSIN			
44	Marquette University, Milwaukee, Society of Jesus	MA MEd	GS

# REQUIREMENTS FOR MASTER'S DEGREE IN EDUCATION 87

TABLE 2

REQUIREMENTS FOR ADMISSION TO GRADUATE STUDY IN THE  
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION IN VARIOUS INSTITUTIONS

Code Number	Sex	Graduate Record Examination	Prerequisite Education Credits	Quality of Pre- requisite Credits	Advanced Standing	Other
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1	C	Y	24	B av	4 after 6	
2	C	Y	6	ns	6 if B	
3	C	Y	12 including Ed Phil, Ed Psy, Meas & Guid, Princ of Elem or Second School	B min	6 after 12	
4	C	Y	12 including Ed Phil, Ed Psy, Meas & Guid, Princ of Elem or Second School	B min	6 after 12	
5	W	Y	15	B min	4	
6	C	N	18 including Ed Phil, Ed Psy, Ed Hist, Stat, T & M	B av	4	
7	C	N	According to concentrations: Classroom Teacher = none; Admin, Super, Student Personnel Services = state teacher certificate; Psych- ological Examiner = under- graduate major or minor in psychology	Better than average	6	
8	C	N	12	B av	none	
9	C	N	15 including Ed Phil, Ed Psy, Princ of Teaching	B av	none	
10	C	N	18 to 24	B av	6	
11	M	Y	12 including Ed Psy, Techniques of Teaching, Princ of Ed	B av	6 after 18	Coeducational in summer session only
12	C	N	18 including Ed Psy	B min	6	Miller Analogies
13	C	N	18	B av	6	
14	C	N	18	B av	6	Qualifying Exam
15	C	Y	12	adequate	6 if B	
16	C	N	MEd = 18; MA in T = 0	better than average	6 after one semester	MA in T = 18 prerequisite credits in teaching subject
17	C	Y	20 or state teacher certificate	C+	6 if B & after 10	
18	C	Y	MEd = state teacher certificate; MA in SSA = state teacher certificate + 1 year secondary school teaching	C+ min	6 if B	Miller Analogies; ACE Psychological; Ohio State Psy- chological
19	C	N	24 including Ed Phil, T & M	ns	none	General mental ability test
20	C	N	24 including Ed Psy, Princ of Ed, General & Special Methods, Directed Observation, Student Teaching	C+	ns	Miller Analogies
21	C	Y	none		6 if B	



TABLE 2-Continued

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
22	C	Y	8 + Student Teaching or 1 year teaching; state teacher certificate according to area of concentration	B av	8	Field experience according to area of concentration
23	C	Y	Plan I = none; Plan II & III = 12	B-	10	Plan I = prerequisite of major in teaching subject
24	W	Y	18	ns	6	
25	C	N	12	ns	6	
26	C	N	24	ability for grad study	none	
27	C	Y	ns	ability for grad study	none	
28	C	Y	18	above av	6 in minor only & if B after 12	
29	C	Y	18 including Ed Phil or Ed Hist, Ed Psy, Prin, General Methods, Practice Teaching	ns	none	
30	C	Y	6	ns	6 if B	
31	C	Y	Major including Ed Phil, Human Growth & Develop, Stat, Curric & Materials, Student Teaching, School in Society	ns	6	Admission exam in Stat; or Stat course not counted for degree
32	W	Y	18	C +	6	
33	C	N	State teacher certificate	ns	6	Miller Analogies
34	C	Y	State teacher certificate	B av	8 if B & after demonstrating capability	
35	C	N	Vary according to area of concentration	C+ av	6 after demonstrating capability	
36	C	Y	12	ns	6 after demonstrating capability	
37	C	N	State teacher certificate	B av	6 if B	
38	C	Y	18	B av	6	
39	C	Y	MA = 12; MEd = 12 + Student Teaching or teaching experience	B av	6	
40	C	Y	18	ns	6	
41	C	N	18 + state teacher certificate	ns	ns	
42	C	N	24	ns	6 after exam on transferred credits	
43	C	N	Undergraduate major	ability for grad study	6 if B	
44	C	Y	18	ability for grad study	6 after 6	Miller Analogies

TABLE 3  
RESIDENCE AND COURSE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE MASTER'S DEGREE  
WITH A MAJOR IN EDUCATION IN VARIOUS INSTITUTIONS

(1) Code Number	(2) Degree	(3) Minimum Residence	(4) Time Limit - Years	Minimum Graduate Credits		(7) Required Courses in Education	(8) Areas of Concentration Offered in Education	Minor Outside Education	
				(5) For Degree	(6) In Edu- cation			(9) Permit Require	(10) Credit
1	MA	1 yr or 5s	ns	24*(0)	18	Research Methods, Very according to undergraduate preparation	Admin, Elem, Guid, Hist, Phil, Psy, Second	P	6
	MS Ed	1 yr*1s or 5s	"	30	"	"	Elem, Second, Super	"	12
2	MS Ed	1 yr	6	26*(7)(4)	18	Research Methods, Admin, Curric, Hist or Phil, Psy, Seminar, Stat	Admin, Curric & Super, Hist & Phil, Psy	P	8
3	MA	1 yr or 1s	5	30	18	Hist & Phil, Psy, Seminar	Admin, Elem, Guid, Psy, Second, Super	P	12
4	MA	1 yr or 5s	5	24*(7)(6)	18	Research Methods, Hist & Phil, Psy or Social	Admin & Super, Elem, Second	P	6
5	MA	1 yr	8	24*(7)(6)	15	Research Methods, Ethics (if lacking)	Curric & Super, Hist & Phil, Psy & Mean	P	9
	MS Ed	"	"	30	21	"	Admin & Super, Elem, Second	"	"
6	MA	1 yr or 1s	none	24	24	Phil, Psy, Specia- lized courses for area of concentration		N	0

TABLE 3-Continued

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
7	MA	ns	6	30+T(3)	18	Seminar, Specified courses for area of concentration	Admin, Classroom Teaching, Super, Student Personnel Services	P	vary
8	MA	1 yr or 5s	none	24+T(0)	18	Research Methods, Phil	Admin, Elem, Excep- tional Child, Guid, Higher, Hist, Phil, Psy, Second	P	6
9	MA	1 yr or 5s	6	24+T(0)	18	Research Methods, Orientation for Graduate Study, Psy	Admin & Super, Elem, Guid, School Psy- chologist, Special (Handicapped)	P	6
10	MSd	"	"	30	"	"	"	R	12
	MA	1 yr	5	24+T(0)	24	Research Methods, Ed Foundations	Admin, Curric & Super, Phil, Psy & Guid	N	0
11	MSd	"	"	30	21	Ed Foundations	"	P	9
	MA Research	1 yr or 4s	3	24+T(0)	16	Phil, Psy, School & Social Order	Admin, Curric & Instruction, Guid, Hist & Phil, Psy & Meas	P	8
	MA Non-Research	1 yr or 5s	"	30	18	"	"	"	12
12	MS Ed	4s	5	30	vary	Fundamental Problems, Admin (if lacking), Scholastic Phil (if lacking)	Admin, Elem, Second	P	12
13	MSd	1 yr	6	30	30	Research Methods, Hist, Phil, Stat	Admin, Elem, Second	N	0
14	MA	1 yr	ns	33	27	Research Methods, Two of Hist, Phil, Psy; Specified courses for area of concentration, Logic & Ethics (if lacking)	Admin & Super, Elem Guid, Second	R	6

TABLE 3-Continued

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
15	MA	ns	ns	24+T(6)	20	Research Methods, Phil, Readings in Current Ed Lit	Admin, Super & Methods, Hist & Phil, Psy & Guid	P	4
	MEd	"	"	30	"	"	"	"	10
16	MEd	none	5	30	21	Research Methods, Phil, Psy, Specia- field courses for area of concentra- tion, Scholastic Phil (if lacking) Phil, Psy of Ado- lescence, Psy of Learning, Second School Curric, Second School Methods, Student Teaching, Scholas- tic Phil (if lacking)	Admin & Super, Elem, Guid, Religious Ed, Second	P	9
	MAT	"	"	36	18	"	Second	R	18
17	MA Research	ns	7	24+T(6)	24	Research Methods, Phil	Admin & Super, Curric & Instruction, Hist & Phil, Psy & Guid	M	0
	MA Non-Research	"	"	30	15	Phil	"	R	15
18	MEd	ns	6	32	12	Phil, Supervised Teaching if ex- perience is limited	ns	R	20
	MASSA	"	"	24+T(6)	18	Admin, Curric, Phil, Super	Admin & Super	"	6
19	MA	1 yr	5	24+T(0)	18	Research Methods, Stat	Admin, Business Ed, Elem, Guid, Home Economics Teaching, Human Relations, Second, Super	P	6
	MEd	"	"	32	vary	Research Methods	"	"	vary

TABLE 3-Continued

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
20	MA	1 yr	6	24+T(6)	18	Thesis Direction	Admin, Elem, Guid, Second "	P	6
	MS Ed	"	"	33	21	none	"	R	12
21	MS Ed	1 yr or 56	5	33	18	Research Methods, Phil, Psy	Elem, Second	P	15
22	MA	ns	ns	30+T(4)	18	Research Methods, Development of Ed Thought, Psy, Seminar, Specified courses for area of concentration	Admin & Super, Elem, General Pro- fessional, Guid, Second, Teaching Handicapped	P	12
23	MS Ed Plan I	1 yr	5	32	18	All courses are specified	none	R	14
	Plan II	"	"	"	16	Critique of Ed Lit, Phil, Stat & Meas, Scholastic Phil (if lacking) (same as Plan II)	"	"	16
	Plan III	"	"	26+T(4)	18		Admin & Super, Hist & Phil, Psy & Meas & Guid	"	8
24	MS Ed	1 yr or 56	6	24+T(6)	12	Research Methods	Elem, Second	P	12
25	MA	1 yr	8	24+T(6)	20	Research Methods, Foundations of Ed, Scholastic Phil (if lacking)	Admin & Super & Methods, Elem, Hist & Phil, Religious Ed, Psy & Meas & Guid, Speech Correction	P	4
26	MS Ed	"	"	30	16	"	"	vary	vary
	MS Ed	ns	6	26+T(4)	14	Research Methods, Scholastic Phil (if lacking)	Admin, Curric & Methods, Guid	P	12
27	MA	1 yr	6	24+T(0)	24	Research Methods, Hist, Phil, Stat, Scho- lastic Phil (if lacking)	Admin & Super, Guid	N	0
	MS Ed	"	"	34	20	"	"	P	14

TABLE 3-Continued

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
28	MA & MS	1 yr	6	27+2(3)	18	Research Methods, Specific courses for area of concentration	Admin & Super, Guid Development, Guid, Hist & Phil	R	9
	MS Ed	"	"	30	"	Research in Ed, Ed Pay or Adolescent Pay or Mental Hygiene, Specified courses for area of concentration	Admin & Super, Guid, Hist & Phil	P	12
29	MS	1 yr	5	24+2(6)	18	Research Methods, Stat	Admin, Elem, Guid, Pay, Super	P	6
	MS Ed	"	"	30	"	"	"	"	12
30	MS Ed	3 sem	6	36	24	Seminar, Scholastic Phil (if lacking)	Admin & Curric, Hist & Phil, Pay	R	12
31	MA Plan A	1 yr	5	24+2(6)	18	Research Methods, Foundations of Ed, Human Relations Specified courses for area of concentration	Admin & Super, Classroom Teacher, Guid	vary	6
32	Plan B MS Ed	" 6s	" 7	30 32+2(6)	24 24	Research Methods, Hist & Phil, Pay, Seminar, Stat	Elem Admin, Elem School Teaching	" P	" 8
33	MS Ed	ns	5	30	12	Research Methods, Admin, Phil, Pay, Specified courses for area of concentra- tion, Scholastic Phil (if lacking)	Admin, Elem, Guid, Second, Subject matter area	P	18
34	MA MS Ed MS Ed	1 yr or 1s "	4 " "	27+2(3) 30 32	15 18 12	Research Methods, Meas, Phil "	Admin, Elem, Guid	P " "	12 " "
35	MS Ed	none	6	26+2(6)	20	Research Methods, Meas, Phil, Pay, Stat	Admin & Super, Elem, Guid, Library Science Ed, Pay, Second, Speech Correction	P " P "	6 20 6 "
	MS Ed	"	"	32	26	"	"	"	"

TABLE 3-Continued

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
36	MS Research	2 yr or 5s	6	24+T(6)	ns	Research Methods, Foundations of Ed, Phil, Psy, Scholastic Phil (if lacking)	ns	ns	ns
37	MS Non-Research MA	1 yr	6	24+T(6)	18	Research Methods, Phil, Semi- nar, Specified courses for area of concentration	Elem, Psy & Ouid, Second	P	6
38	MS Ed MA	"	"	30	15	Meas or Stat, Phil, Seminar in Ed Research	Admin, Elem, Ouid, Second	"	15
39	MA MSd	1 yr	5	24+T(6)	12	Research Methods	Elem, Second	P	12
40	MSd	1 yr	6	36	18	Research Methods, Child De- velopment or Human Develop- ment, Directed Learning Activities, Hist & Phil, Meas, Seminar	Elem, Exceptional Child, School Librarian, Second, Teaching Art, Teaching Music, Visiting Teacher	P	18
41	MA MAT	ns	ns	30	30	Methods of Content Subject, Three Coordinating Seminars Methods of Content Subject, A Coordinating Seminar	ns	M	0
42	MA MSd	1 yr	2	24+T(0)	18	Research Methods	Hist, Meas, Phil, Psy	P	6
43	MA	ns	5	24+T(6)	14	none	Admin & Super, Curric & Methods, Ouid, Hist & Phil, Psy	P	10
44	MSd MA	"	"	30	20	Research Methods, Research in Ed, Fundamental Problems in Ed, Specified courses for area of concentration	Admin & Super, Elem, Ouid, Meas, Second	P	12
	MSd	1 yr	6	24+T(6)	12	Research Methods, Research in Ed, Advanced Research in Ed, Fundamental Problems in Ed, Stat, Specified courses for area of concentration	"	"	"



# REQUIREMENTS FOR MASTER'S DEGREE IN EDUCATION 95

TABLE 4  
ADDITIONAL REQUIREMENTS FOR THE MASTER'S DEGREE WITH A  
MAJOR IN EDUCATION IN VARIOUS INSTITUTIONS

Code Number	Degree	Foreign Language	Thesis	Major Written Compre- hensive	Minor	Oral	Other
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1	MA	Y	Y	Y	N	N	
	MS Ed	N	N	"	"	"	Seminar Problem
2	MS Ed	Y	Y	Y	N	N	Comprehensive includes Graduate Record Exam, exam in area of concentration and exam in statistics
3	MA	N	N	Y	Y	N	Project
4	MA	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	
5	MA	Y	Y	Y	N	N	
	MS Ed	N	N	"	"	"	
6	MA	N	N	Y	N	N	
7	MA	N	O	N	N	Y	B av
8	MA	Y	Y	Y	N	N	
9	MA	N	Y	Y	N	Y	
	MEd	"	N	"	"	N	Research paper
10	MA	N	Y	N	N	Y	
	MEd	"	N	"	Y	N	
11	MA Research	Y	Y	Y	N	N	
	MA Non-Research	N	N	"	"	"	
12	MS Ed	Y	O	Y	N	N	B av
13	MEd	N	N	Y	N	Y	
14	MA	Y	N	Y	N	N	B av
15	MA	Y	Y	Y	N	N	B av
	MEd	N	N	"	"	"	"
16	MEd	N	N	Y	N	N	B av
	MAT	Y	"	"	Y	"	"
17	MA Research	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	
	MA Non-Research	N	N	"	Y	"	
18	MEd	N	N	Y	Y	Y	B av; Research paper
	MASSA	"	Y	"	"	"	B av
19	MA	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Series of lectures of Graduate School
	MEd	N	N	Y	Y	"	"
20	MA	Y*	Y	Y	Y	Y	*May substitute statistics course
	MS Ed	N	N	"	"	N	
21	MEd	N	O	Y	N	N	
22	MA	N	O	Y	N	N	B av; Matriculation exam in 1st semester
23	MS Ed						
	Plan I & II	N	N	N	N	N	B av; Practicum in cooperation with in-service teaching in Plan I
	Plan III	Y	Y	Y	"	"	B av
24	MS Ed	N	Y	Y	N	N	
25	MA	Y*	Y	Y	N	Y	*May substitute statistics course
	MS Ed	"	N	"	"	"	" " " "
26	MS Ed	N	Y	Y	N	N	B av
27	MA	Y	Y	Y	N	N	
	MEd	N	N	"	"	"	
28	MA	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	
	MS	"	"	"	"	"	
	MS Ed	N	N	"	"	"	Research problem

TABLE 4-Continued

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
29	MS	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	
	MS Ed	N	N	"	"	"	
30	MS Ed	N	N	Y	Y	N	B av
31	MA Plan A	N	Y	Y	N	Y	Statistics exam or course
	MA Plan B	"	N	"	"	"	Research report
32	MS Ed	N	Y	Y	N	N	B av
33	MEd	N	N	Y	Y	N	C+ av
34	MA	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	
	MEd	N	N	"	"	N	Either a field study or 2 additional credits
	MCEd	N	N	"	Y	"	
35	MS Ed	N	Y	Y	N	N	B av
	MEd	"	N	"	"	"	"
36	MS Research	Y	Y	Y	N	N	B av
	MS Non-Research	N	N	"	"	"	"
37	MA	N	Y	Y	N	Y	Candidacy Exam after completing 6 credits
	MS Ed	"	N	"	"	N	" " " " " " "
38	MA	N	Y	Y	N	N	
39	MA	Y	Y	Y	N	N	B av
	MEd	N	N	"	"	"	"
40	MEd	N	N	Y	N	N	B av
41	MA	Y	N	Y	Y	N	Practice teaching or teaching experience
	MAT	N	"	"	"	"	" " " " " "
42	MA	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	
	MEd	N	"	"	"	"	
43	MA	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	B av
	MEd	"	O	"	"	"	"
44	MA	Y	Y	Y	N	N	
	MEd	N	N	"	"	"	Research essay

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*The College of St. Thomas, St. Paul, Minnesota, offered \$10,400 in partial scholarships to 1958 high-school graduates last month.*

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*Rt. Rev. Msgr. Eugene Kevane, former principal of Heelan Catholic High School in Sioux City, Iowa, joined the faculty of the Department of Education of The Catholic University of America this month. He will teach courses in the philosophy of education.*

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*Two members of the Department of Education of The Catholic University of America were recently raised to the rank of Domestic Prelate; they are Rt. Rev. Msgr. Francis P. Cassidy and Rt. Rev. Msgr. Bernard T. Rattigan.*

## USING HOMEROOM FOR GUIDANCE IN PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

By Brother Philip Harris, O.S.F.\*

**F**OR THE PURPOSE of this discussion personality is defined as "the pattern of all of a person's powers, activities, and habits, which he has organized in his own particular way as he strives to become the ideal kind of person he wants to be and which is consistently revealed in his behavior." Thus personality is not considered just a collection of traits and characteristics, the way we appear to others or the effect we have on them, a set of social skills for winning friends, or something we can put on or off according to the need of the situation.

Personality is not the same as popularity, reputation or character. Rather it is the unique way each individual develops the powers and capacities which God has given to him. Since personality is chiefly the result of one's own efforts, the school can contribute much to help the pupil perfect a good, integrated Christian personality.

There are various ways in which the school contributes to the development of the personalities of its students. In the secondary school these are some of the prime means for accomplishing this purpose: (1) by the wholesome example of worth-while personalities found among teachers and student leaders; (2) by the understanding of the meaning of man, right behavior, and ideals of virtuous action, which are gained through the religion classes; (3) by the influence of grace attained through prayer, the sacraments, and the practice of virtue — opportunities for personal growth which are fostered in the Catholic high school; (4) by the inspiration of life lessons learned in literature, history, and similar subjects; (5) by the individual counseling in private interviews which the school may provide through the chaplain, the guidance counselors, and other personnel specialists; and (6) by the group guidance offered in assemblies and special conferences, or in a psychology or home-room guidance course.

The last two items mentioned give a cue to a positive, con-

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\* Brother Philip Harris, O.S.F., Ph.D., is director of student personnel at Saint Francis College, Brooklyn, New York.

sistent, program that the secondary school could employ to develop the personality of each individual student within its walls. By the introduction of a guidance service, a Catholic school would employ twentieth-century techniques to discover, develop and direct all of the God-given potentialities of the students. The formal guidance program simply seeks to help the boy and girl to find their rightful places as citizens in a democratic social order and to co-operate with divine grace in establishing within themselves constancy in following the teachings of Christ. While individual counseling is the heart of an effective guidance department in a modern school, the emphasis of this paper will be on the value of group guidance for personality development.

The many devices which have been evolved for working with students in groups — the homeroom, the guidance class, and the small assembly — seem to be best calculated to provide the most effective, sequential, cumulative and consistent guidance, especially if one accepts the premise that men are more alike than different. Since such situations closely approximate the typical classroom milieu, they require a minimum of interference with the daily routine of the school. No major adjustments in teacher assignments, schedule of classes, rooms, or other facilities are necessary. Moreover, there is no need for that preliminary teacher education which is usually associated with the expert guidance counselor. These classes may be conducted by teachers who are experienced in the ways of youth and interested in their welfare.

A group guidance program should extend over the four years of high school. While it may be conducted by means of a daily class of from twenty to thirty minutes, the more common procedure is a weekly period of forty-five minutes. The syllabus for such a four-year program should include topics for each year that will aid in the personality development of the student. However, it is conceivable that one whole year could be devoted to a serious study of personality, its meaning and significance. Some schools prefer to compress such a discussion into a one-semester course of practical psychology. In either approach a group situation is employed to develop personality.

#### ADEQUACY OF GROUP GUIDANCE

Many aspects of the student's personality require some form of group guidance in the school. The adolescent's ideas, ideals, and

attitudes are largely determined by the mores of the groups to which he gives allegiance, for few things are more important to him than the opinions of his peers. Moreover, his attitudes towards himself, in great part, are a by-product of the evaluations which groups of people have passed on him. In addition, the satisfaction of certain fundamental psychological needs is best secured through the mastery of those social skills which a group guidance program seeks to develop. Everyone yearns to rest secure in the knowledge that he is respected and loved by his equals, that he "fits in and belongs" to certain valued groups on which he can not only rely for friendship, emotional support, and help but to which he can also make a welcome contribution of service because he is needed. These are basic human desires which no man can meet alone and unaided; yet only when they are satisfied is it possible for him to be *someone* rather than *something*.

Moreover when young people band together in groups, there results not merely a feeling of togetherness and a spirit of "we, our, and us" but also a group personality which is much more than the mere sum of the personalities of the individuals in the group. For this reason what the group thinks and does may often mean much more to the adolescent than what teachers, who are outside the group, say and do. Therefore, skillfully directed group discussions can be a powerful force in the molding of the student's personality along constructive lines.

Thus, group guidance is recommended as an effective procedure for bringing about wholesome growth in the student's personality because: (1) It helps the student to satisfy his need for acceptance, security, affection, and a sense of service at a time when such help is most needed, in that no-man's-land called adolescence. (2) It contributes to the balanced development of the student by assisting him in solving his educational, vocational, social, personal, and spiritual problems. (3) It increases his self insight and self understanding, as well as his understanding of others, his sensitivity to their feelings, and his respect for their convictions, even when he does not agree with them. (4) It aids the student to learn the cooperative ways of democracy in shared responsibility and shared satisfaction at success, in mutual assistance and concern for the good of all. (5) It provides a laboratory of human relations by giving the pupil practice in working coordinately with others on problems and projects of common interest. (6) It helps the student to learn

the communication skills of attentive listening, competent self expression, and critical evaluation of ideas. (7) It facilitates the student's efforts to learn wise leadership and intelligent followership, to fulfill assigned roles, and to shift roles according to the changing conditions of the group. (8) It fosters the student's rational independence of irrational group pressures, his patience in reaching agreement on the basis of consensus rather than of majority vote, and his self discipline for the greater good of the group without compromise of principles. (9) It assists the pupil to respect the opinions of the minority and to struggle, in justice, that such opinions may be given a fair hearing. (10) It increases the student's capacity for being friendly and helpful, thus maximizing his potentiality for good in his community and helping him to develop those interpersonal skills which may make his life as a Christopher both effective and fruitful.

Group guidance and individual counseling are complementary aspects of the pupil personnel program. Often a student's behavior in his group activities is an indication to the observant teacher of the need for more personalized help which is provided in counseling. In this way a group guidance program can help the counselor avoid that bane of his existence, missing those students who are most in need of his assistance. Group guidance serves to focus the student's attention on the importance of solving problems which heretofore have been ignored and thus stimulate the individual to seek an interview. Group guidance can prepare the confused or disturbed pupil for effective individual help, or it can continue the worth-while effects of the counseling process.

#### FITNESS OF HOMEROOM FOR GROUP GUIDANCE

The homeroom organization seems to be the best medium for group guidance. Although some homeroom programs have failed in the past, this can be an effective procedure if it is used primarily for guidance rather than administrative purposes. Only teachers who have the personality for successful homeroom guidance should be assigned to such work. Adequate provisions in terms of time, necessary materials, and facilities must be made if the homeroom guidance class is to succeed. Furthermore, the content of such a class must be planned, which results in a comprehensive and integrated coverage of topics with order and sequence, yet permit-

ting a certain amount of flexibility on the part of the teacher in the actual operation of the homeroom. There should be a minimum of teacher talk and a maximum of student contribution and problem solving. The approach in the homeroom should be varied—discussions, forums, films, lectures, reports, and the like.

When such basic steps are followed, then the homeroom can become an effective learning situation. It has its primary, but by no means exclusive, allegiance to the student. Thus, it attempts to provide a "home" in the school, in which the teacher respects the pupil as a person and understands him as an individual; a home in which other students know, accept and like the individual adolescent. The homeroom encourages the student to be himself, within reasonable limits, and to express not only his honest convictions but also his sincere feelings without fear or retaliation. It facilitates his efforts to solve problems which are important to him, as well as those which adults consider significant, without fear of grades, discipline, or failure. It helps him to motivate his own learning by gearing it to the realities of *his* life, and stimulates problem-solving efforts by placing the responsibility for personal growth where it belongs, on the pupil's shoulders.

The homeroom also serves as a means for increasing teacher sensitivity to student's needs, for improving teacher-student relationship, and for enabling the teacher to become more familiar with the whole student in order that he may guide the whole person more wisely. The homeroom supplements the curriculum of the school by considering the student's adjustment problems and by relating these problems to the total school program. The homeroom, is, in short, an outward sign of the school's inner concern for the student's feelings, ideas, ambitions, difficulties, and plans. It is a reassurance that what is important to the pupil is also considered important by the school.

#### TOPICS FOR FIRST SEMESTER

The sophomore year would seem to be an ideal time to devote homeroom organization to the problems of personality and its development. A weekly group guidance class could consider approximately thirty different topics in a year. For organizational purposes these could be arranged according to six, seven or eight units. The first semester might be used to help the student to gain insight

into himself. One topic of discussion could be on the "puzzle of personality" which would seek to clear up some of the confusion concerning the meaning of this term and its importance. Case studies would be helpful to illustrate the abstract concepts. The teacher might then consider with the homeroom class, the "ingredients of personality" or the seven factors that influence one's personality — creation, clan, child of a parent, culture, class, creed, and code. Next, the "pathways to personality" might be examined — namely, the effects of growth, development, experience, and learning on personality and the satisfaction of human needs. Ways to gain a pleasing personality and to meet one's needs by solving life's developmental tasks may be indicated. Since life is filled with problems and conflicts, it would be significant to consider with the students the "meaning of maturity," that ability to meet life's challenges by good adjustment. Furthermore, the qualities of a mature person should be analyzed in detail.

Another natural grouping of topics could be arranged around the "roadblocks to personality." Students should be warned about the damage of self doubting and self preoccupation, about failure and frustration, about fear and worry, about false superiority and inferiority, about insecurity and inadequacy, about false conscience and guilt. A period should be devoted to the ways that individuals retreat from reality by excessive eating, drinking, and sleeping; or by illness, daydreaming, erratic or childish behavior, taking it out on someone else, and overwork.

Another session should be devoted to the ways students may compromise reality, by explaining away failure, by blaming the other person, by self-justification, by substitute satisfactions, by discovering a better way, by basking in reflective glory, and by insistence on perfection. Finally, some people attack reality and are contrary and hard to live with. Some analysis should be given to the way teasing, bullying, anger, hatred, violence, destruction, brutality, revenge, and delinquency, are manifestations of this refusal to face reality.

A series of classes could be spent on discussions of ways to manage "threats to one's personal integrity." A profitable lesson could be developed around methods of conquering worries and fears. It could analyze why students worry and the exact meaning of fear. It could consider the effect of anxiety and fear on physical well-being as well as on personality. It should distinguish between normal



and abnormal fear and worry. Because scruples are a particular bane of the adolescent, one fruitful lecture may be worked up on the meaning of a scruple and of conscience. This would point out the difference between a healthy sense of guilt and unhealthy guilt feelings. It would also consider the causes of scruples and the vicious cycle that they engender, as well as the natural and supernatural aids to subdue scruples. Another guidance discussion on managing moods and blues would be in order for the teenagers who are especially afflicted by such periods. It would require an analysis of the nature, causes, dangers, and social effects of moods and blues. The value of emotional control and of using one's intellect and willpower to dominate moodiness also would be pointed out, along with other practical measures for counteracting these feelings. While all adolescents suffer from a certain amount of shyness and self-consciousness, many need assistance to understand and surmount these. It is necessary to distinguish between natural embarrassment and inferiority. Self-acceptance and patience should be offered as solutions to shyness, and positive attitudes should be fostered to counteract self-consciousness.

The last part of the first term in the homeroom guidance course on personality should be devoted to the "techniques of a healthy personality." This would include a period on gaining self-confidence which would explain what it is and what it is not, as well as the need for self-esteem and the satisfaction of one's personal needs. By relating self-confidence to the individual's capacity for love, ways can be explored which will help the student to inspire confidence in himself and to develop his confidence in others. Since everyone has problems, students in homeroom class should be shown different ways of solving them, and they should be warned against two extremes — overdependence on others and neglect of any outside aid. A further useful discussion would be on "life as an adventure" and the world as an interesting place in which to live when one possesses self-respect, self-esteem and self-confidence. In other words, one lesson should take up the characteristics of a healthy personality as a means for attaining inner peace and of exercising one's apostolate as a Christian leaven.

#### TOPICS FOR SECOND SEMESTER

The last half of this homeroom course should be centered around "gaining insight into one's social relationships." A half dozen

periods could consider the problem of living with one's peers and begin by a study of the effect of one's personality on his fellow man. Here the social nature of man and one's social responsibilities and needs would be brought into focus. By acting as a true Christian gentleman or lady, the student can see how personality can be an influence for good, by changing the attitudes, habits, and actions of others. Still further discussion should be given to service to one's fellow man through generosity, a hierarchy of loyalties, using one's energies where they will do the most good.

Popularity is sought by most teen-agers; therefore, it would be important to consider true and false ideas of popularity, as well as the fact that charity should be the root of real popularity. This would be an appropriate time to take up the importance of friendship and Christian methods for winning friends and influencing others for good. This would lead into further discussions on true praise versus flattery, constructive and destructive criticism, and learning to accept people's praise and criticism with profit.

Some tips on true friendship would be appropriate. Students should know the values of good friendship, how to make and keep friends, why they are lost, and how to solve conflicts which arise from friendships. This topic naturally leads into an analysis of affection and infatuation. The sacredness of sex and the beauty of true love can be contrasted to the superficial attraction that sometimes exists between the sexes. The true basis of deep affection should be highlighted — reverence, respect, generosity, self-sacrifice. The dangers of steady dating and crushes must be brought out, along with definite suggestions on preparation for real love.

The next unit of topics could be developed around "ways to live with adults" since desire for independence from adult supervision is so strong in the adolescent. A period could be given over to hints on human relations, particularly with reference to one's family. A session could be given to a discussion of parents, the natural difference between the two generations, the need for gradual independence from them, the causes for differences of opinions between parents and offspring, and the attitude of the adolescent toward the parent.

This naturally will lead to further analysis of adults in society at large, and emphasis should be placed on a need for authority and respect for it. Students should be helped to understand the

limitations and prejudices of those in authority, along with loyalty and support of legitimate authority.

A final topic in this regard would be on "ways of preparing for adult leadership," by utilizing the opportunities for leadership in adolescence. It would be necessary to study the mental and personality characteristics of a leader and to urge students to develop whatever leadership talents they possess.

The last unit of a guidance program on personality development should consider "living in one's community." First, there is a need for young Catholics to understand the problems that face them in a non-Catholic world so that they will avoid inferiority feelings and pugnaciousness. Their personality should enable them to live harmoniously with non-Catholics without sacrifice of principle and be a dynamic force in bringing the world to Christ. This is an excellent opportunity to bring out the social significance of the doctrine of the Mystical Body of Christ, particularly with regard to prejudice. It is a means for urging justice for all by respect for other races, religions, and nationalities.

Group guidance on personality should end with the ideal of the true Christian personality in action within the community and parish. The perfect personality, Jesus Christ, should be held out as a model of emotional maturity, character, friendship, loyalty, and other desirable traits so well exemplified in the life of Our Lord.

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*The Right Reverend Monsignor William J. McDonald, rector of The Catholic University of America, received an honorary degree of Doctor of Science from St. John's University, Brooklyn, last month.*

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*The first English-language geography of Taiwan (Formosa) is now being prepared for publication by Dr. Chiao-men Hsieh of The Catholic University of America's Department of Geography.*

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*Since 1956, Catholics in Asia and Africa have increased 1.5 million, or nearly 3 per cent; they now number 53.5 million in a total population of 1.75 billion on the two continents.*

## INSTRUCTING AND MOTIVATING PUPILS IN THE LIGHT OF TEST RESULTS

By Marie A. Kastner\*

**T**HE SCHOOL THAT TOM ATTENDS has a testing program. Each term a considerable sum of money is invested in tests and many hours are spent in grading them. As a result the school files contain much information on the abilities and achievements of each pupil. If allowed to remain untouched in the files this means of evaluation becomes worthless; if put to use it can be of great value to Tom, his classmates, and his teacher.

The teacher is interested in influencing each pupil by instruction and discipline in a way that will enable the child to develop his powers as a rational being and direct himself toward his ultimate goal. Under the teacher's care each pupil should acquire certain knowledge and skills, establish emotional stability, form good habits and make progress toward noble ideals. The pupils can do these more easily if the teacher directing them knows their strengths and weaknesses and applies that knowledge to the improvement of day-by-day instruction and motivation.

To provide the teachers with this information, some schools have testing programs that include measurement of mental maturity, scholastic achievement in several academic fields, indication of special aptitudes, educational and vocational interests, and aspects of personality. However, there are many schools whose standardized tests are limited to those of mental maturity, reading and scholastic achievement. The data obtained from these tests are treated here.

### TESTS AS INDICATORS OF ACHIEVEMENT DIFFERENCES

A mental maturity test provides the teacher with a knowledge of the number of gifted children in the class as well as the number of slow learners. According to the standard scores earned, the pupils can be classified as dull normal, normal, high normal, or superior. In terms of Stanford-Binet intelligence quotients or scores correlated with them these categories are designated by scores of 80-89, 90-

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\* Marie A. Kastner, M.Ed., is assistant professor of education at Spring Hill College, Mobile, Alabama.

109, 110-119, and 120-139 respectively. Many teachers when checking the records of their pupils find that the class range of mental maturity is from dull normal to superior, some even having a few pupils who border on the mentally defective group and a few others who rank in the very superior bracket.

An achievement test provides the teacher with a measure of the knowledge acquired by the pupils as a result of particular instruction, such as English grammar, American history, or arithmetic. Here too it is quite usual to find several levels of achievement within each class for each subject tested.

A reading test provides the teacher with a knowledge of the reading speed and depth of comprehension that each pupil has attained. In addition, measurement of other reading skills may be given. Again, unless the pupils are grouped homogeniously according to reading abilities, there will be many levels, often ten or twelve, in each class.

With these individual differences in mind, the teacher expects some differences in performance during daily recitations, in homework, and on weekly or monthly quizzes. But she need not be content merely to note the difference; she can determine to do something to help each child. Using the test results as a guide the teacher can often do a great deal.

First of all she knows that she should expect levels of achievement commensurate with intellectual capacity. Those students with superior intellects should, with a normal amount of effort and time, do work of an above-average quality. On the other hand, those pupils with dull intellects have to expend much effort to do work that is just average. But the teacher may find that the brighter students' achievement indicates that they are not working to capacity. This brings up the problem of need for motivation.

#### TESTS AS SIGNS OF MOTIVATIONAL NEEDS

Motivation is the stimulating of pupils so that they have the "will to learn," an interest in doing the work at hand. If the subject matter itself does not hold the student's interest, if the student displays an attitude of indifference or dislike toward study, the teacher motivates him by employing certain incentives that create interest which in turn generates effort. Among the well-known incentives that a teacher may consider are knowledge of progress, praise, reward, reproof, and punishment.

The skillful teacher weaves effective incentives into the very fabric of her classroom procedure. She realizes that success is one of the strongest of all incentives and adjusts the lesson material to the individuals in such a way that each pupil can find a measure of success within his reach. This does not mean that she makes the work easy but rather that just as the child may grasp an apple placed at arm's length by exercising his muscles to the limit so he may gain success by exercising his intellect to capacity. In dealing with the dull pupils the teacher by asking simple questions on new matter, by requiring more difficult answers on review material, and by requesting a summary of the work that the class has encountered several times does just that. The dull pupil having found success satisfying makes an effort to reach out with his mental powers toward greater successes. And now he can be motivated further by a judicious word or two of praise. Praise for average achievement gained through effort can work wonders. If the pupil's interest begins to wane and his effort to decrease, a little encouragement and expression of confidence from the teacher rekindles his interest and increases his effort. By these being sustained over a period of time the child needs less and less external motivation.

There may also be the case of a student scoring in the upper levels of mental maturity who achieves little. Here the reason may well be that he has success too close at hand for his own good and has to expend little effort to grasp it. For him success should be placed a little farther away so that he will constantly meet challenging situations and avoid falling into the habit of laziness, depriving himself and society of the full power of his intellect. A difficult problem to be solved the next day proposed at the end of a class, an assigned topic that will demand hard work, a question that requires deep thought will do much to increase achievement.

In studying test results it is wise to pay particular attention to reading levels and to compare them with achievement and mental maturity scores. One should bear in mind that a student can gain a great deal of knowledge through reading and can miss a great deal through his lack of reading skill. This fact affects all phases of his school work. There may be a student who scores poorly on a test of mental maturity solely because of his poor reading ability. In such a case it is well to analyse the subtests carefully to see where the difficulty lies. If the subtest scores on such items as number sequence,

mathematical work of a mechanical type, or spatial relationships are high the indications are that the student has a good amount of native intelligence that is being vitiated by those sections of the test that demand an understanding of written language. Granting that this is true, the pupil himself regardless of ability should not be expected to bring up his own reading level, but the teacher should be expected to help solve his problem. This can be done by discovering the particular points of weakness, doing some remedial work with him and providing plenty of reading material that interests the pupil and is on his own level. The teacher should also be cognizant of the fact that a person reads for pleasure one or two levels below his capacity.

#### TESTS IN PARENT-TEACHER CONFERENCES

Test results can be very useful at times in bringing a better understanding into the teacher-pupil-parent triangle. It often happens that a parent sets certain goals for his child that are not at all commensurate with the child's ability and interests. Without treating in detail the place of test results in counseling, a word about such a situation should be said.

The parent who believes that since a child is his own offspring he must be an individual who possesses great intellectual powers is perhaps well known to many teachers. In some instances the child is really bright, but in many others he is average or even dull. When the child of a doting parent does only average work in school the parent usually becomes quite concerned in a way that can be harmful to the child's progress and to the teacher-pupil-parent relationship. Such a parent usually begins to exert pressure on the child and on the teacher until the child is working at frustration level and the teacher is placed in a very unfavorable position. As a result the child achieves less and less, becoming more retarded term after term. If the teacher consults the pupil's record, finds the test results and adds what information he has about the child from daily association with him the teacher can often talk the matter over with the parent pointing out several very pertinent facts that may prevent serious trouble or rectify in some measure the harm already done.

Just as it is unjust for a parent to consider a child bright without anything to substantiate his judgment, by the same token it is unjust for a teacher to label a child as dull without very sound basis for it. Considering the case of the normal child pressured into retardation

by a parent for several terms it is easy to see that an unthinking teacher getting him in class and seeing only his poor work may quickly misjudge the child's mentality. A study of test results would prevent the misjudgment.

After a careful study of all the information concerning tests that the teacher has available to him there is this to be remembered: prediction of either success or failure is impossible because of the fact that two very important factors that go into the make-up of success or failure, namely, will power and effort, are not measurable by any standardized test. The teacher by his personal interest in his pupils, by conducting himself in a kind and friendly manner, by using proper motivation kindles the spark of interest which generates effort that leads to success.

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*Of the total cost of \$54,336,000 for 276 Catholic elementary and secondary schools built in England since 1945, the Church paid \$27,213,000 while the government, national and local, contributed \$27,123,000.*

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*The Protestant Council of the City of New York reported recently that a survey showed that 29.5 per cent of the 15 million persons in the New York metropolitan area are Catholic.*

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*"The American Revolution," a series of six filmstrips in color, is being offered by American Heritage and Encyclopaedia Britannica Films at a cost of \$36.00, or \$6.00 a filmstrip.*

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*The first of his series of lectures in America will be given by Earl Attlee, former prime minister of Great Britain, at Boston College, February 19.*

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*The Navy Distinguished Public Service Award was given recently to Rev. Daniel J. Linehan, S.J., chairman of Boston College's Department of Geophysics, for his work with Navy Task Force 43 and Operation Deepfreeze.*



## INTELLECTUAL DEVELOPMENT BY MEANS OF THE HIGH-SCHOOL PAPER

By Sister Mary Susanne, R.S.M.\*

A HIGH-SCHOOL NEWSPAPER is an excellent means of fulfilling the first of the seven broad objectives of Catholic secondary education as outlined by the Policies Committee of the National Catholic Education Association in 1939: "to develop intelligent Catholics."<sup>1</sup> Similarly, the Xavier College Study recently published by the Sisters of Mercy in Chicago states that the chief function of the liberal school is "to aid the person to perfect his intellectual potentialities in order that he can attain to wisdom."<sup>2</sup> However, intellectual training is bound to be meager and deficient if the teacher does not understand clearly the nature and the operations of the intellect.

Education must prepare the intellect for the reception of truth and must result in the proper development of the intellectual processes. The school must concern itself with the task of securing through its curriculum an adequate background of concrete experiences from which students can build up the percepts and images which form the basis for concepts or ideas. From a comparison of these concepts, they can then form judgments. From a comparison of judgments, other judgments are inferred, and in this last act the intellect reaches its ultimate performance, reasoning. Guided in this fashion, the intellect, as it develops, will find itself apt to admit what is true, and to discard what is false. Kelly defines this intellectual growth and development as a "steady increase in the fullness, richness, and variety of mental content, and in the perfection of control over and correlation and interpretation of mental content."<sup>3</sup>

In adolescent psychology the term development is used specifically to signify progression toward maturity or a gradual unfolding. If we

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\* Sister Mary Susanne, R.S.M., M.A., is on the staff of St. Bernard Academy, Nashville, Tennessee.

<sup>1</sup> John D. Redden and Francis A. Ryan, *A Catholic Philosophy of Education* (Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Co., 1949), p. 92.

<sup>2</sup> Saint Xavier College Self-Study Committee, *The Liberal Education of the Christian Person* (Chicago: Xavier College Press, 1955), p. 111.

<sup>3</sup> William A. Kelly and Margaret R. Kelly, *Introductory Child Psychology* (Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Co., 1938), p. 42.

allow the terms "intellect" and "intelligence" to stand for the same thing, this concept of intellectual development can have several meanings: (1) since intelligence embraces several functions, it may refer to the development of any one or all of these; (2) it may mean the kind of growth manifested in the results of intelligence tests; or (3) a distinction can be made as to different types of intelligence: verbal, abstract, social, mechanical, and so on.

Today there is a great deal of uncertainty about the precise meaning of "intelligence." Catholic psychologists make a clear distinction between the two terms, "intellect" and "intelligence," whereas many others do not. In that they both signify the capacity to think, as distinct from the capacities to perceive, to imagine, or to remember, both terms are alike. But the intellect is the faculty or power itself, whereas intelligence is its manifestation or actual working. Thus a teen-age boy has more intelligence than he had as a child, but he does not have a better intellect. He only *uses* it differently and more effectively.

#### ART OF ACTING INTELLIGENTLY

However, intelligence is not simply a matter of intellect. It takes more than the capacity to understand, judge, or reason, in order to profit by past experience, to develop foresight, or to learn how to adjust effectively to environment. Intelligent behavior requires experience, a dependable memory, and training in the art of acting intelligently. This distinction between the ability to think and to act intelligently is fundamental. A high-school paper can be of great practical value in helping adolescents learn to act intelligently in concrete, everyday situations. Let us see how this is so.

The formation of any idea begins with and depends upon sense experiences. Sensations are elaborated into percepts and images, which are representations of concrete and individual objects and by means of which the intellect is aware of the thing before it. The Scholastics classified these percepts according to sense organs as visual, auditory, tactile, gustatory, olfactory, and mixed. At adolescence the improvement in quality and in quantity is very marked. Since perception is a conscious reaction, the progress of perceptual knowledge can be excited by interest and by curiosity. All higher forms of knowledge rest upon this foundation, therefore it seems feasible to do this.

## SHARPENING POWER OF OBSERVATION

Reporting factual news stories is one effective means of increasing in adolescents their powers of observation and of developing in them accuracy of thought and of expression. A paper should serve as the eyes and ears of its readers, focusing attention on the interesting and important events that occur. Through the eyes of the reporter, we see tragedy: thirty people killed when an airliner crashes; we enjoy humor: a man living in a large root-beer keg; we experience the vicarious thrill of an exciting football game. The teen-age reporter must be trained, not only to see, which requires merely good eyesight, but to see significant differences. More important than good vision or good hearing is the power to discriminate. Skill and discrimination result from selective attention, a power fostered by reporting.

The reporter for a school paper is a scout for news. He must be able to ferret out that which has news values and to ignore the rest. This sense of news values, of what appeals to his readers, would be of little aid if he did not train himself to exercise this sense. The good reporter is constantly alert. He does not depend entirely on assignments for stories but ever views activities around him with this question in mind, "Will this make a story?" As he goes about his day at school he sees things that others on the staff do not see. It may be the explosion of a test tube in chemistry laboratory or a sleepy student falling from his desk; from a conversation in the cafeteria he may learn of an accident to one of the students; a stray cat wanders across the stage during an assembly; a class is planning an important project. From such things the reporter draws ideas for stories. He needs to be observant, first, in finding his subjects, and second, in gathering material for them. Without a developed sense of observation and a cultivated memory, the reporter would not be able to supply the necessary details of description which often have to be fitted into the story later. The more accurate the adolescent's observation is and the more faithful his interpretation of it, the better he will be able to remember and to use all materials presented to his senses as percepts.

## ENRICHING THE IMAGINATION

Presupposing both sensation and perception, and closely allied to memory, is the imagination, or the mental power of forming

representations of past sensory experiences when the objects are not actually present and also to combine these into new forms. Imagination is not a process of intellectual thought, because images are concrete and individual while thoughts are spiritual and abstract. This creative power of the mind is sometimes called constructive imagination, which, strictly speaking, does not construct anything completely new, but only combines into new forms past sensations.

The essentials of constructive imagination are an abundance of images of past sensations, motivation or stimulating of an interest and desire to construct, and attention. Writing feature articles, stories, or poems for the school paper certainly promotes the development of this power of originality. Because a number of factors contribute to the development of imagination, the greater the range of experience and the more fully developed the apperceptive background, the richer will be the imagination of the adolescent, depending always on the factor of innate capacity.

If it is trained and fostered, the imagination grows more vigorous with the years, although it may not appear so because it is better controlled. In youth, imagination is fertile and often unrestrained because the outlook of adolescents is broadening and their interests are spreading. Writing for the school paper is a splendid way to help adolescents develop a lively imagination, which Father McCarthy describes as a boon which "lightens the tedium of life, prolongs pleasure, makes creative work possible, and is a necessity for artistic appreciation."<sup>4</sup>

The connection between imagination and other mental functions is obvious. There is a close relation between imagery and language. While language is by definition an expression of thought, it is often through the medium of verbal imagery that language can be expressive at all. Constructive imagination both enriches and transforms experience and plays a vital part in inventive, artistic and intellectual activities, hence it must be cultivated, controlled and regulated by reason. Since imagination furnishes man's intellect with materials for its operation, it is of great service in the acquisition of truth. During adolescence the teen-ager acquires a steadily increasing control over his imagination, but he still needs guidance and direction. If the adult moderator of the school paper does a wise job by kindly and judiciously selecting and rejecting copy and ex-

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<sup>4</sup> Raphael C. McCarthy, *Training the Adolescent* (Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Co., 1937), p. 41.

plaining his reasons for doing so, the adolescent will gain an increased appreciation of literature, art, music, drama, as well as a better understanding of his daily school work. A keen, fertile imagination, well organized and toward definite ends, is a great help to anyone and should be developed for the sake of its appreciative and interpretative value.

The adolescent whose imagination has been trained by working on a school paper plans his responses and is fitted to meet new situations in an intelligent and progressive manner. On the contrary, one whose imagination lacks proper development largely responds to new situations through imitation of past responses. But the teenage reporter has learned—perhaps through bitter experience—that allowing a margin is a part of planning a time schedule. If copy is not delivered to the printer's by noon on Saturday, the office is closed. If flash bulbs were not ordered, they cannot be obtained on a holiday. Through practical experience he learns the kind of imaginative thinking which trains him to schedule his time accurately, to allow a margin for possible mishaps, and thereby to avoid many disappointments.

#### LEARNING TO WRITE BY WRITING

In the past, creativeness has implied the ability to create something new and lasting and it has been regarded as the work of genius, not as part of the make-up of the ordinary person. Today many educators take an entirely different view, regarding creativeness as an integral part of the make-up of everyone. Creativeness is largely a matter of imagination and it can be systematically taught and cultivated. Osborn offers evidence in support of his thesis that creativity is largely a matter of effort.<sup>5</sup> Several people thinking creatively together can step up the production of ideas because they stimulate one another. This theory is also backed by a modern Catholic writer who condemns as "utter nonsense" the unfortunate conviction that "only the work of the individual artist can be truly creative. The most usual and normal kind of work is *collaboration*."<sup>6</sup>

<sup>5</sup>A. F. Osborn, *Applied Imagination* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1953), p. 88.

<sup>6</sup>Edward Willock, "To Dig I Am Not Able," *Integrity*, VI (August, 1952), 25.

Regarded from this aspect, a school paper as a form of social creativity in the field of writing could be compared to a symphony orchestra in music. All work together: editor, reporters, typists, copyreaders, artists, photographers, proofreaders, business staff; each works separately, yet the result is a pleasing whole: the published paper. Since this creativeness is much more certain to come as a result of hard and at times tiresome but purposeful labor, the grind of putting out the school paper can encourage the adolescent to look at the product of his labor critically, to evaluate it in terms of his own capabilities, and to strive continuously to improve in his ability to create.

The school paper provides specific stimuli, incentives, guidance, and training in skills so that meaningful creative writing may result. Creative writing makes a definite contribution to the development of the adolescent, for it fulfills three objectives: (1) it helps the adolescent to understand the ideas of others and to express his own effectively; (2) it gives him a better understanding and a deeper appreciation of literature, arts, music, and other cultural activities; (3) it helps him attain a satisfactory emotional and social adjustment. Nothing boosts a student's "morale" better than seeing his own name in print or hearing others compliment him for a job well done, whether it be the cartoon he drew, the editorial he composed, the accurate and interesting reporting job, the entertaining column, or the informative book review.

The school is an educational institution and if the production of the paper is not a real educative experience for the group producing it, and to a lesser extent for the whole school, the paper has no place in the school. It furnishes a favorable opportunity for pupils to learn how to write English by writing it. Probably it is impossible to teach anyone how to write genuine literature, but it is possible to teach adolescents to be accurate, simple, concise, and clear in their writing. Everyone on the staff—from the editor down to the newest reporter—can write for a waiting reader on a subject that he knows about. Because he is interested in his article, he must master such fundamentals as spelling, sentence structure and variety, and paragraphing, or his contribution will be re-written or killed. He must be able to distinguish between the important and the useless for news purposes. What he writes must be interesting or it is nothing. This interest will carry the writer through the hard practice needed to learn to write.

One of the best opportunities for creative writing is the short human interest story. These can be written about some unusual object or person or humorous incident. Ordinarily the story should state very simply the things that make the person or object unusual. In almost any school a good reporter can discover a number of subjects of this type; for example, a student with an unusual job or an unusual pet, the tallest boy or girl in the school, and so on. Youthful reporters enjoy writing about and reading their own personal experiences, and such exercises in composition as "I Did It!" or "My Most Embarrassing Moment" promote development of imagination as well as of grammar.

It has been said that a good reporter must see and understand and then write so that his reader can see and understand. An adolescent sent to cover the championship football game must write his story so that the hundreds who had to stay home can visualize what took place. He draws upon his imagination to reconstruct the incidents, then he imagines what his readers will want to know and he tries to tell these things in the most interesting way he can imagine. This teaches him to slant his writing and aim it at his readers from the three angles of age bracket, interest, and vocabulary level. Thus, a personal column differs from an editorial both in style and content. Here again the teen-age reporter is gaining skills in discrimination and in interpretation of news.

#### DEVELOPING ATTENTION AND CONCENTRATION

Another mental power aided by newspaper work is the memory, an essential condition of all knowledge and one basic to the simplest judgment as well as the most involved reasoning. Between the thirteenth and sixteenth years the logical or intellectual memory develops rapidly. From a psychological point of view, a good memory is mostly a matter of interest. Given a good organism, a brain structure that is receptive to external impressions and retentive of them, we remember the things we pay attention to and in proportion to the ways we attend to them. This fact has much to do with the development of the adolescent's memory. Since his interests increase in number and intensity and his power of sustaining attention expands, the success of memory development depends on the way it builds up a body of interest and aids in acquiring his concentration.

Nearly every phase of working on the school paper can help an



adolescent develop a facile, retentive and accurate memory. Whether he is a reporter, or writes original stories or short features, or interviews some visiting celebrity, or plans the lay-out of the paper, he is obviously using his memory to do the job and do it well.

Since logical memory is essential to all thinking, to develop it is to promote the development of all thinking powers. It has been found that there is a very high correlation between logical memory and intelligence. Memory is indispensable in the acquiring of skills, of information, and of knowledge. An adolescent who has trained his memory by reporting or by working in the business development of his school paper, will be able to reproduce and recognize experiences and ideas quickly and accurately, as well as to integrate new experiences and ideas with those already acquired.

Memory cannot exist without association, another basic step in the process of learning, because memory depends upon the formation of adequate associations and hence furnishes the framework for intellectual life. Little or no advance is possible without the formation of new ideas, the modification of old ideas, and the establishment of a new relation between the new and the old. Common sense shows us that such associations are indispensable to the acquisition of knowledge and skills. Training in voluntary, wholesome, logical associations of images and ideas can be promoted if adolescents are given tasks and assignments significant or purposeful to them. Redden and Ryan claim that a significant task is the best way to promote orderly combination of ideas.<sup>7</sup> A boy or girl getting an interview for the paper, searching for a worth-while topic for a forceful editorial or a clever cartoon, or carefully checking over copy, surely is working on a task significant to him and thereby is forming new associations which, in turn, will help him to think critically and to evaluate.

Of particular significance to intellectual development is attention, which, when it is deliberate, intense, and directed toward a specific experience, becomes concentration. Concentration is so essential to learning that Father Schneiders calls it "the fountain head of all critical, constructive and creative thinking."<sup>8</sup> It is by examining ideas, thoughts and conclusions, either our own or those of others,

<sup>7</sup> Redden and Ryan, *op cit.*, p. 237.

<sup>8</sup> Alexander A. Schneiders, *The Psychology of Adolescence* (Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Co., 1951), p. 28.



that we can determine their truth or falsity. It is by concentrating on them that new ideas arise. This habit of critical thinking can be formed in adolescents and one way to help them develop their powers of concentration is working on the school paper. Since attention increases in proportion to the interest evoked, writing an account of a football game or an editorial on some school policy, are not just exercises in written composition, but they also help the young reporter to develop his intellectual insight. This insight or ability to grasp the meaning of an experience or of a situation is basic to the formation and acquisition of ideas, which are in turn the basis of judgment and reasoning. Any development, therefore, in the functions of attention and insight is bound to carry over into the more complex intellectual processes of judgment and reasoning.

#### EXPERIENCE IN THINKING AND JUDGING

The most elementary of the intellectual processes is that of simple apprehension or conception, by means of which the intellect forms ideas. These concepts or ideas are the coins of thought and are expressed by words. That is why ordinarily the size of a person's vocabulary is a reliable measure of his ability to think. The power of conception gives one a command of language, but it must be developed. There is a very close relationship between accuracy of thinking and accuracy of expression, so words must correspond with intellectual concepts. Teachers must correct, adjust, and verify the concepts formed. Obviously, an adolescent can be trained in this ability to think straight and to write clearly and truthfully through his practical experiences on the staff of a school paper: reporting, writing editorials, features, and so on.

The second function of the intellect is judgment or the seeing of a relationship or agreement or disagreement between two or more ideas. Judgments enter into all learning and all voluntary activity. Adolescents must be guided and encouraged to form their own judgments, to test them for soundness, and to express them accurately. The outward sign of the judgment is the sentence, hence journalism is an excellent device for training adolescents to form judgments and to express them effectively. Editorial writing, in particular, is a practical means of strengthening their powers of critical thinking and building up in them strong defenses against propaganda and prejudice.

The school paper presents a favorable opportunity for its pupils to learn how to read newspapers. A knowledge of the problems involved in producing a paper gives teen-agers a keener appreciation of successful achievement. What to read, how to read, and what to believe are all important. Democratic government seems impossible without newspapers, yet sometimes it seems impossible with some kinds that exist. The school attempts to teach pupils to read, but often it makes no attempt to help them directly in the field in which, sad but true, the majority of them will do the greater part of their adult reading. The surest way to get a better press is to demand it, and here the school can develop in its students a taste and a desire for a better type of journalism. If the school paper had no other use than to help its staff become discriminating readers, it would be of value.

#### TRAINING IN REASONING

The third operation of the intellect is reasoning, the highest form of human thought. Adolescents show a decided acceleration in the capacity for logical reasoning and with proper training and guidance they can be stimulated to make greater progress. In order to reason one must have a supply of ideas about the subject with which he is dealing. The reasoning of adolescents is often inaccurate because they lack experience or because their ideas are unorganized. One of the surest ways of acquiring complete control of any power is by using it. If the adolescent is to learn to regulate his life by the reasonable motives of which he is now capable, he must have practice in using his reason. As McCarthy points out, if the powers of reasoning are "not disciplined during adolescence, the likelihood is that they will remain undeveloped."<sup>9</sup>

Thus, to a large extent the success of any school paper depends upon its adult moderator. If he allows material from the students to go into print uncensored, the value of the paper may be partially or entirely lost, and the morale of the school may be seriously impaired. He must direct the efforts of the enthusiastic contributors and hold them responsible for worthy standards of attainment. To maintain high standards of workmanship without suppressing the originality and the spontaneity of the youthful writers is a

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<sup>9</sup> McCarthy, *op. cit.*, p. 49.

task that requires considerable tact and rare skill in constructive criticism.

The moderator of the paper, by showing himself willing to listen to and consider the opinions of his staff, can often bring the adolescent to see how he is mistaken, how his conclusions are not justified by his data, how he is overlooking some essential factor. If youth's ideas are ridiculed he is discouraged from expressing them and thus he misses splendid practice in forming his powers of correct thinking. Working to edit the paper can fit adolescents for intelligent leadership and for intelligent following. Both demand the power of intelligent judgment which can be developed only by using it.

Reporting for the paper requires analysis and the ability to select what is significant. It takes initiative to discover and to write a good news story or feature. This trains the adolescent to reason and teaches him to avoid hasty conclusions. He must be confronted with problems to be solved, allowed to search out the relevant evidence, to learn this evidence, come to a conclusion, and then to test that conclusion. If adolescents are thus guided to discriminate they will not grow up to swell the large number of those who are victimized by suggestions and whose opinions are shaped by the latest radio and TV commentators. These abilities to form practical judgments, to develop sound opinions, to criticize one's own thinking, are dependent for their development on actual experience in doing these things. By his judicious guidance the adult moderator can protect adolescents against immature thinking and can help them attain intellectual maturity, which always implies the ability to distinguish fact from opinion, hypothesis from warranted assertions.

A school paper provides laboratory training which develops this power of critical thinking. The boys and girls themselves must plan the lay-out, organize facts into accurate and interesting stories, express clearly and forcefully their opinions in editorials and columns. By doing these things they gradually learn when to avoid making judgments that go beyond the scope of their experience and the available evidence, and when to submit humbly to the known truth in spite of personal prejudice or emotional repugnance. The natural results of such work is training in responsibility and leadership. It should produce an articulate alumni of wide-awake Catholics who, "if they will not set the world on fire, will at least scratch

a few well-placed sparks in the environment in which they live."<sup>10</sup>

#### PRACTICE IN BUSINESS SKILLS

In addition, the school paper promotes the development of several capacities which, while not themselves strictly intellectual, are closely allied to intelligence. One of these is mechanical aptitude. Many an adolescent who lacks the "creative spark" needed to write cleverly does have the manual skills needed to get the paper printed. The actual printing of a school paper requires muscular co-ordination and control and sound common sense on the part of its compositors and pressmen. What high-school newspaper could do without its loyal typists and capable mimeograph operators? A recent article pointed out our modern heresy of discriminating as mousy, clerks who do routine and unimportant tasks, forgetting that facts prove that such routine is vital to our diplomacy, national affairs, business, and so on, all of which depend on competent clerical work.<sup>11</sup> This demands a special kind of intelligence which our adolescent typists, copy readers, proofreaders, and printers are all developing and perfecting.

We also tend to discriminate against what might be termed "practical intelligence." Yet boys and girls who work in the commercial department of the school paper and have charge of its advertising and circulation are getting excellent business training with rare vocational advantages. It takes real school spirit, genuine tact and patience, and honest industry to solicit advertisements for the paper, to keep accurate and neat records of all transactions, and to boost subscriptions. An editor may follow all the rules and still fail to produce a lively and goodlooking paper. A sense of judgment and the cultivation of good taste in make-up can come only through practical experience. A staff needs members who have special skill in mathematics in order to scale pictures and columns accurately, while those with artistic talents are required to select a balanced, pleasing design for the finished copy. Truly, planning the "dummy" of a school paper is no job for a "dummy"!

<sup>10</sup> Joseph C. Mulhern, "Extracurricular Activities and Financing Them," *Bulletin of the National Catholic Educational Association*, XLVI (August, 1949), 317.

<sup>11</sup> Malcolm S. MacLean, "Are We Discriminating against Intelligence?" *Education Digest*, XX (January, 1955), 2.

## OPPORTUNITY FOR WORKING TOGETHER

Finally, the school paper is an excellent means of developing the adolescent's "social intelligence." Getting along with ourselves and with others is one of life's most necessary lessons. Working together on the common enterprise of getting out the paper develops in adolescents an indispensable habit of co-operation. The success of one is the success of all, the failure of each, the failure of all. For this reason, it is a maturing method. Through it teen-agers learn to pool their insights and energies, to work for common ends, and to take stock of such individual habits and attitudes as make or break the cooperative enterprise.

When properly planned, edited and printed, the school paper creates school patriotism and an increased interest in all the school activities: educational, athletic, and social. It gives to adolescents the feeling of "ourness." When they feel that the school is theirs and that what they do is for their own good or harm, they become more and more democratic. Sharing with teachers all interests and assuming more responsibility, they think of the school in terms of "ours." This increased interest becomes what we call school spirit, an invaluable asset. For a school paper can and does express the achievement, the life, the joy, the enthusiasm and idealism of the school, not by direct preaching, but by a clear account of the manifestations of these qualities. By focusing approval on right actions it can promote right standards of conduct, and help to correct possible abuses. Thoughtful and fair-minded handling of news can make for a school pride based on real knowledge rather than on idle and empty boasting. But above all, school journalism impresses upon adolescents the necessity for clear, concise, truthful thinking and writing. Hence a school paper is a praiseworthy way to teach truth, which is the true goal of the intellect.

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*The Federal Register (Vol. 23, No. 251, December 25, 1958) presents complete directions and sample forms for schools applying for exemption from federal excise taxes. Copies of the Register may be obtained for 15 cents from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.*

## THE CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY RESEARCH ABSTRACTS\*

### PHILOSOPHY OF MAN ACCORDING TO KARL MARX AND JOHN DEWEY: A COMPARATIVE STUDY by Rev. Joseph De Andrea, M.A.

The purpose of this dissertation was to examine and compare the concept of man in the philosophies of Karl Marx and John Dewey in the light of Catholic principles. The study involved an analysis of the two theories of man, based on their writings.

Marx's historical materialism regards man as matter in continuous interaction with other aspects of nature and society. Through a dialectic process of sociability and individuality man's own individuality emerges as an imminent principle with a social and material destiny.

Dewey's concept of man is anti-dualistic and anti-metaphysical. He regards man as continuous with nature. In the process of natural evolution man is at the apex of nature but there is nothing spiritual in his make-up. The task of philosophy is to create through experimentation with the social environment the new individual fit for living in a changing world. Dewey may have made a contribution to education through his emphasis on interest and self-activity, but his materialistic views on the nature of man must be regarded as particularly dangerous in that they are closely related to what is so central in Communism—Materialism.

### HISTORY OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN THE ARCHDIOCESE OF ST. PAUL by Sister M. Athanasius Curran, O.P., M.A.

On July 19, 1850, the See of St. Paul was erected and Joseph Cretin was appointed as the first Bishop. Up to that time there had been scattered missionary efforts throughout the State of Minnesota but most of the concentrated effort was centered around the twin Cities and adjacent points. Bishop Cretin began his episcopacy with three priests, but by the end of his episcopacy he had increased the number to twenty and had added two religious communities. Today after a little more than a century of growth and development

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\* Microfilms of these M.A. dissertations may be obtained through the inter-library loan department of The Catholic University of America; information on costs will be sent on request.

there are 26 religious congregations teaching in the 178 elementary schools in the archdiocese with an enrollment of 66,545 pupils. The archdiocese has a diocesan teachers' college and a well-organized diocesan school system.

A SURVEY OF THE ATTITUDES OF PRIESTS TOWARDS TRAINING IN PASTORAL PSYCHOLOGY by Rev. Vincent Waiches, M.A.

This study was undertaken to determine if there is a need for training in pastoral psychology. Questionnaires were sent to 460 priests serving in the capacities of pastors, assistants, educators, and chaplains of institutions to get a representative sampling of the 46,000 active priests. Replies were received from 50.7 per cent of the 460 priests.

The findings indicated that an overwhelming majority of the respondents favored a special course in pastoral psychology for the seminarians. Institutes were suggested as the best way to reach the priests. That the priests participating in the study were interested in the field of pastoral psychology was evident from the amount of reading and studying they have done in this area. Those who had training in pastoral psychology were more alert to psychological problems.

THE CONSTRUCTION OF A RATING SCALE FOR THE PERSONALITY TRAIT OF EMOTIONAL IMMATUREITY IN HIGH-SCHOOL SOPHOMORE GIRLS by Wladyslaw A. Socha, M.A.

This rating scale to measure emotional immaturity in high-school girls was devised by means of the Thurstone rank-order method.

Statements indicating the presence of this trait were collected from twenty-nine teachers and from literature on the subject. Over one hundred statements were sent to twenty-five judges for sorting into eleven groups, representing the different degrees of the trait. The results of the judging were calculated according to Thurstone's rank-order method. The cumulative proportions and the scale values for each statement were found. On the basis of these values, twenty-two statements were selected, eleven for each form of the scale.

A reliability coefficient of .54 was obtained in correlating scores of the two forms of the scale after these two forms had been applied to one hundred girls by three teachers. The Spearman-Brown



formula for predicting the reliability of a scale of double length produced a reliability coefficient of .70.

**A FOLLOW-UP STUDY OF A SELECTED GROUP OF JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL SPECIAL CLASS PUPILS OVER A TEN-YEAR PERIOD** by Ruth Strauss, M.A.

This dissertation is a follow-up study of 112 boys and girls who attended the special classes of Stuart Junior High School in Washington, D. C., in the years 1944 to 1955. There were 65 who achieved graduation and 47 who discontinued school when they reached their sixteenth year.

The data were gathered by interviewing the former students. It was found that 13, or 11.6 per cent, of the total group were in simple clerical and sales jobs; 11, or 9.8 per cent, were in service occupations; 6, or 5.4 per cent, were in semi-skilled occupations; and 20, or 17.9 per cent, were in unskilled occupations.

**EFFECT OF MEDITATIVE THOUGHT ON SELECTED POETRY IN DEVELOPING THE VIRTUE OF KINDNESS IN FIFTH-GRADERS** by Mother Teresita Rivet, O.S.U., M.A.

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether a study of poetry would influence the concepts held by fifth-grade girls in regard to the virtue of kindness. The 175 pupils participating in the study represented six Catholic elementary schools for girls in Louisiana and Texas. The pupils were classified into an experimental group, which consisted of 86 pupils, and a control group, which consisted of 89 pupils. The data from two problemnaires and a questionnaire dealing with factors which might have influenced the girls' ideas of kindness formed the basic material of the study.

The results of the study indicate that both groups of girls had definite, positive concepts of kindness at the conclusion of the study. The critical ratio of .411 for the problemnaire scores of the two groups at the end of the experiment reveals that the small difference could have been a matter of chance and was not necessarily a result of the experimental method. Within the experimental group, however, the critical ratio of 7.48 for Problemnaire I and Problemnaire II scores points out that it is possible that the method was a factor in favorably influencing the participants' concepts.



## HIGHER EDUCATION NOTES

The forty-ninth summer session of The Catholic University of America is scheduled from June 29 to August 7, 1959. To meet the needs of the more than 3,500 students expected to register from June 24 to 27, the University's thirty-three departments will offer a total of 453 courses in 56 major fields of study. In addition to courses leading to undergraduate and graduate degrees, special certificate programs will be offered in Catholic Social Action (for priests and seminarians only), Confraternity of Christian Doctrine Work, Mariology, Preaching, and in Sight-Saving and Braille Education. For pre-college students, there will be a three-day program in The High-School Yearbook, a four-week Institute in Journalism, and a six-week Speech and Drama Laboratory.

Various new courses have been added to departmental offerings. Some of these are: Elementary Russian, Soviet Union Geography, Polar Regions Geography, Teaching Foreign Languages in the Elementary School. Methods courses at the secondary-school level will include the areas of English, foreign language, science, mathematics, and music. Special courses will be offered on the problems of teaching the gifted and also the slow learner on both the elementary and secondary levels. Guidance and counseling offerings have been enhanced through a cooperative program between the Departments of Education and Psychology. Secondary-school teachers will be interested in the University's program, which got under way last summer, leading to the degree of Master of Teaching Science. Details of this program are outlined in a brochure which may be obtained from the registrar of the University.

In addition to its Washington, D. C., summer program, the University will offer Master's degree programs in four branches: the Pacific Coast Branch, at Dominican College of San Rafael, San Rafael, California; the Midwest Branch, at Loras College, Dubuque, Iowa; the Southern Branch, at Incarnate Word College, San Antonio, Texas; and, for the first time, at Mary Manse College, Toledo, Ohio. For information on the branch offerings, inquiries should be addressed to the registrar of the college housing the particular branch.

Only three-tenths of one per cent of the \$70,433,507, paid out by the Ford Foundation in the year ended September 30, 1958, to

schools and other institutions, went to Catholic colleges and universities. According to the Foundation's 1958 report, the total paid to Catholic institutions was \$215,502. Granted to Catholic schools, but not paid by September 30, was an additional \$214,833. Of the total \$530,335 granted to Catholic schools, \$144,000 went to Boston College; \$35,000, to the College of St. Catherine; \$25,000, to Georgetown University; \$15,435, to Gonzaga University; \$173,400, to the University of Notre Dame, and \$37,500, to the College of St. Scholastica.

**An early admissions program** will be started at Fordham College next September. Outstanding students will be allowed to begin college after completing their third year of high school. The plan is designed to permit students to start graduate and professional studies earlier and to provide motivation for them to use their talents more adequately. To help the early admissions students adjust to college life, Fordham will assign them a faculty adviser for the first semester. They will be expected to maintain the same course schedule and to meet the same academic standards as other freshmen. The program will be open to talented students from high schools which officially approve the policy. The students must achieve scores on the College Entrance Examination Board achievement tests and Scholastic Aptitude Test which indicate they are capable of doing college work. They must also be recommended by their high-school principal.

**Marquette University has the largest full-time enrollment** among U. S. Catholic colleges and universities, according to a report carried in *America* (January 9, 1959). The report is based on an analysis of enrollments for all U. S. colleges and universities presented recently in *School and Society*. Marquette's full-time enrollment is 6,614. First in total enrollment, including part-time as well as full-time students, is the University of Detroit, with 10,520 students; Marquette is second in total enrollment, with 10,194 students. Notre Dame University leads in male enrollment, with 6,122 students, followed by Fordham University, with 4,739. Marquette was listed as having the largest coed enrollment, 2,012, and St. John's University, Brooklyn, was second with 1,262. The magazine also reported that for the first time an enrollment of more than

1,000 full-time students was given in the category of Catholic women's colleges. Two institutions were over the mark: the College of St. Catherine, St. Paul, Minnesota, 1,055, and Mundelein College, Chicago, 1,021.

Catholic institutions with full-time enrollments of more than 3,000 students are: Marquette, 6,614; Notre Dame, 6,163; St. Louis, 5,640; Fordham, 5,598; Detroit, 5,373; Boston College, 5,358; St. John's, Brooklyn, 4,921; Georgetown, 4,576; Loyola, Chicago, 3,908; Villanova, 3,811; Dayton, 3,483; De Paul, 3,258; Seton Hall, 3,135.

Institutions with total enrollments of more than 6,000 students are: Detroit, 10,520; Marquette, 10,094; Seton Hall, 9,680; St. John's, Brooklyn, 9,513; Fordham, 8,851; Loyola, Chicago, 8,816; De Paul, 8,306; St. Louis, 7,568; Boston College, 7,429; Notre Dame, 6,279; Dayton, 6,074.

**The Association of American Colleges** deplored at its forty-fifth annual meeting, in Kansas City, Missouri, last month "the increasingly frequent controversy between public and private colleges" in competition for public esteem. In a resolution, the Association maintained that "there need be no conflict of interests among the various categories of colleges and universities. Diversity of control, of method and of aim is traditional in our American system. This diversity has been and will continue to be a source of strength."

At its concluding session, the Association, made up of some 750 public and private colleges, voted to refer to its board of directors for further study a resolution proposing that the organization prepare an amendment to the National Defense Education Act of 1958. This amendment would provide that benefits of the Act for teachers be given to all teachers whether in public or private schools.

**The Pro Deo Association of Catholic Colleges** has received a gift of \$1,000 from His Eminence Francis Cardinal Spellman for the further development of the co-operative activities of the Association. At the initiative of the Right Reverend Monsignor John J. Voight, Secretary of Education of the Archdiocese of New York, ten colleges engaged in the Sister Formation program in the Archdiocese are completing five years of co-ordinated effort to share in the solution of common problems.

## SECONDARY EDUCATION NOTES

The National Broadcasting Company is now televising a series of 160 half-hour programs on "Physics for the Atomic Age," designed especially for high-school science teachers. Gifted high-school students who complete the course can win an advanced standing in physics when they go to college. Technicians working in related fields can improve their backgrounds. College seniors and graduates will be eligible for credits from more than three hundred colleges participating in the venture. Harvey E. White, professor of physics at the University of California at Berkeley, is the principal teacher. Other internationally known scientists will participate from time to time. Dr. James R. Killian, Jr., special assistant to the President for science and technology took part in the initial telecast. During the first semester, "Continental Classroom," is devoted to those aspects of physics necessary to an understanding of atomic and nuclear physics: kinematics, light, dynamics, electricity, magnetism. In the second semester, emphasis will be on nuclear and atomic physics.

Spelling in the secondary schools is like the weather in Mark Twain's famous comment: Everyone talks a great deal about it, but few have tried to set up a thorough and consistent program to attack it. G. R. Carlsen of the State University of Iowa, in an article in *Education* (December, 1958), offers these comments and suggestions to solve the problem. By the secondary level, students have already come through years of fairly conventional, formalized drill in spelling. For some the results have been excellent, for others they have been miserable. There seems little doubt that continued work through the secondary schools with more word lists, more formalized, regularly scheduled drill will add little to what it has already accomplished in the elementary grades. What is needed at the secondary level is a program in which spelling has been firmly built into the communication program in writing. A student is helped to locate the words he wants to use but has trouble in spelling; he is helped to find the most effective method for learning to spell for him; drill periods are structured so that each individual works only on words with which he is having difficulty.

In Europe, a secondary school "revolution" is underway. Educators from twenty-six European and Mediterranean countries agreed at a two weeks' conference at Sevres, France, that the traditional pattern of European secondary education has been disrupted by the pressures of population increase and technical change and that further modifications of the system are needed. As reported in *School and Society* (December, 1958), the educators agreed that the traditional classic study course of European secondary schools should be broadened and that the exacting written and oral examinations should be abolished. Louis Francois, secretary-general of the French National Commission for UNESCO, stated: "We have come to an almost catastrophic situation in France. During the baccalaureat examination in June, parents, grandparents, great-grandparents, and children all go into a fever. It is worse than a national election. What we need is an examination system that takes into account the aptitudes and ability of the student to solve problems, not the testing of encyclopedic knowledge."

The big city or rural consolidated high school, which can provide a thousand or more students with plenty of teachers, laboratories and workshops, amply stocked libraries, and elaborate counseling services, has advantages over the smaller school. This is the opinion of most educators, particularly in the Midwest, as reported in *Newsweek* (December 29, 1958). A controversy has developed wherein the smaller schools, especially Catholic schools, are claiming that the advocates of large schools are trying to eliminate the small schools. The dispute centers around the recommendations made by a committee of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the accrediting agency for the 9,278 public, private and parochial secondary schools in a nineteen-state area which stretches from Minnesota to Arkansas. Last fall, a North Central committee proposed drastic revisions in the association's regulations, recommending that rigid performance standards be added to the old concept that a member school be judged "in terms of its own philosophy." Among the proposed new requirements are these: A ratio of no more than thirty students to one teacher; eighteen semester hours of teacher-training for secondary school faculty members; and one full-time counselor for every five hundred students. In addition, the committee called for minimum offerings in various

fields. These included such requirements as six units of practical arts, which small schools would find difficult to offer. Most of the private schools and the small public schools felt they would not be too severely handicapped even if they did not meet the proposed standards. The private schools were confident that their graduates could gain admission to colleges by passing the College Board examinations. Small public schools knew that they could still get state accreditation. This, of course, would not be true for all Catholic schools. Father Robert F. Harvanek, Prefect of Studies for the Chicago Province of Jesuits remarked: "Jesuit schools are, in the main, small college-preparatory schools. The proposals give no attention to this." Meetings have been scheduled to discuss the proposals and there are indications that they will be revised after the plight of the nonpublic schools is more thoroughly considered.

**In the realm of the blind, if the one-eyed is not king,** at least he is tempted to assume the role. Many half-visioned people look on education as such a realm and try to provide eyes for the rest. This is particularly true in regard to the high-school principal and his obligation as an educational leader in the community, according to J. M. Trytten, writing in the University of Michigan *School of Education Bulletin* (November, 1958). Upon the principal rests the responsibility for clarification of the purposes and program of the secondary school not only to his teachers, but to the people of the community as well. The concept of the high-school principal as a respectable, capable, businesslike school manager needs to be revised to include courageous and imaginative leadership. The principal is the administrator most closely identified with the learning front where teachers work directly with pupils; he has short lines of communication and face-to-face relationships with teachers, parents, and pupils. Public understanding of the high school and confidence in it will develop as he accepts the responsibility for leadership.

**"The old gray mare, she ain't what she used to be,"** and neither is the high-school diploma, asserts Earl H. Hanson, superintendent of schools, Rock Island, Illinois, in a recent issue of *Education* (December, 1958). In 1900 the high-school diploma was a sort of minor A.B. Those days are long past. People should stop talking about it in the terms of 1900.

## ELEMENTARY EDUCATION NOTES

**Guidance on the primary level is where personal guidance should begin.** This is the contention of Sister Mary Euphrosine, C.D.P., Alexandria, Louisiana. In a series of articles in the *Catholic School Journal*, Sister states that if correct ideas of Christlikeness can be instilled in children while very young, they will be real Christophers in their adult life. Taking time out each day to aid the pupils in thinking about God in relation to their daily actions is the method used. Sister concludes that if some such procedure is followed in the elementary grades, it will be a splendid foundation for the solution of personality difficulties which confront the adolescent upon his transition from grade school to high school.

**The sources of motivation are admirably presented in a new NEA booklet "About Motivation."** The sources of external motivation for the elementary-school child may be classified under three headings: materials, people, and group interaction. An aesthetically attractive classroom, which includes pictures and other materials contributed and arranged by both teachers and children, facilitates motivation to learn by arousing new interests. Motivation is often stimulated by the teacher through the use of her own rich resources and the use of interesting materials. An enjoyable group game under careful adult guidance motivates the learning of many of the requisites of good group living. The challenge to the elementary teacher is ever present. She needs to increase in competence in helping children to understand their needs and desires. When the teacher is motivating children to learn she needs to use creatively materials, people and group activity to develop understanding. Containing many useful hints and suggestions on motivation in the elementary classroom, the booklet is obtainable free from Elementary Instructional Service, NEA, 1201 16th St., Washington 6, D. C. Copies in quantity are 10 cents each.

**"If there are fifteen minutes in a quarter of an hour, why are there not fifteen cents in a quarter of a dollar?"** The abstractions of arithmetic, the techniques of numbers, and the concepts and understandings involved are not simple. The wonder is not that children know so little arithmetic, but rather that they know so much. H. C.



Christofferson, professor of mathematics at Miami University School of Education, Oxford, Ohio, in an article in the *NEA Journal* (January, 1959), pleads for better teaching of mathematical concepts. If children are to learn to put mathematics to use in practical situations, says Dr. Christofferson, the teacher must help them to grasp the evolving and changing process that takes place even in simple arithmetic. For example, subtraction is most commonly thought of as "take-away," but is often interpreted as "regrouping." If there are five blocks in a group and two blocks are taken away or placed in a separate group, how many blocks remain? There are really no fewer blocks; two of them are merely grouped separately from the other three. However, if there were five cookies and Johnnie ate two of them, this "take-away" does reduce the number of cookies. Consequently, subtraction as "take-away" is not fully described by the idea of regrouping, but must include the possibility of objects' disappearing in the subtraction.

**The practice of beginning instruction in handwriting** with manuscript and changing to cursive before the end of the primary period has become almost universal in the schools of the United States. In a study reported in *Education Digest* (January, 1959), Frank N. Freeman, Dean Emeritus of the School of Education, University of California, Berkeley, attempted to determine the trend in this matter in school systems of the country. Receiving replies from 861 school systems, these conclusions were stated: (1) The prevailing practice in the cities of the U. S. of 10,000 and above is to make the change in Grade 3; (2) There is considerable variation in practice among the states, which may be attributed largely to a difference in practice among the systems; (3) The citation of authorities for the time of making the change indicates a good deal of diversity, though the majority favor the change in Grade 3; (4) Pending more objective scientific investigation which would be difficult, the weight of evidence seems to be in favor of changing from manuscript to cursive in Grade 3.

**Catholic day classes for mentally retarded children** who can be educated increased by 80 per cent in the past two years, according to the recently published *Directory of Catholic Facilities for Exceptional Children in the United States*.



## NEWS FROM THE FIELD

**North Carolina Catholic school enrollment has tripled** in the past fourteen years. Today the Diocese of Raleigh has 10,043 pupils in 54 elementary and 10 secondary schools; in 1944, there were only 3,178 pupils. Of today's total, 3,086 pupils (30.7 per cent) are non-Catholic. Several of the State's first Catholic schools were staffed entirely by lay teachers. St. Mary's School in Wilmington is recorded as the first Catholic school in the area, opening in 1869. These and other facts on the growth of Catholic education in North Carolina are presented in a very attractive and interesting book entitled *Catholic Education in North Carolina* which has just been published by the Diocese of Raleigh.

Outlined in rather extensive detail in the book is Raleigh's integrated curriculum from Grade I through XII. The elementary-school program follows the courses of study developed under the direction of the Catholic Committee of the South and based upon *Guiding Growth in Christian Social Living*, the elementary-school curriculum guide prepared by the Commission on American Citizenship of The Catholic University of America. Leader in the development of the Diocese's secondary-school program is Sister Mary Janet, S.C., formerly with the Commission. Complete courses of study in nearly all the secondary-school subject fields have been constructed for the Diocese by Sister Mary Janet and a group of teachers who have worked together for several summers implementing the Commission's "Christian Foundation Program" for effective classroom use. All Catholics will be delighted with this excellent report of the Church's progress in the South.

**The national average cost per pupil** in the public schools this year is estimated to be \$340, an increase of 4.9 per cent over that of last year, according to *Estimates of School Statistics, 1958-59*, Research Report 1958-R6 of the NEA Research Division. Two states (Alabama and Mississippi) spend less than \$200 per pupil, and two others (Alaska and New York) spend \$500 or more. The average national teacher's salary went up 4.5 per cent, to \$4,775. New York and California were reported as paying the highest averages, \$6,300 and \$6,250 respectively, while Mississippi was reported as paying the lowest, \$3,200.

**Children need more hours of schooling** because there is more to learn than they now have time for, wrote U. S. Education Commissioner Derthick in an article in last month's *Parents'* magazine. Dr. Derthick advocated a longer day, a longer year, and more homework. He said that his recommendation for more homework is backed by more than a thousand high-school principals, who in a survey said they thought pupils should work harder.

**The growing use of tests** in selection, guidance, and evaluation is reflected in data presented in the *1957-58 Annual Report of Educational Testing Service*. The regular program of College Entrance Examination Board tests had an increase in candidates of 38 per cent over 1956-57; preliminary candidates were up 59 per cent, final candidates up 31 per cent. The Secondary School Admission Test, rounding out its second year of existence, saw its candidate volume nearly doubled. The Scholarship Qualifying Test, also in its second year, was given to half again as many students as took it in 1956-57.

During the year two policy changes were made in the College Board's testing programs. Beginning in October, 1958, high-school juniors were allowed to take the Scholarship Qualifying Test, which formerly only seniors could take. Starting in December, the policy of not allowing counselors to tell seniors the scores they made as juniors on the Scholastic Aptitude Test was changed to permit such reporting of scores.

In order to help speed up colleges' acceptance of applicants, the CEEB is developing a comprehensive achievement test which will reflect a student's aptitude for learning and achieving in a subject area, rather than his knowledge of specific facts learned at the latest point of study. Such a test could be given early in the senior year of high school and could give colleges an earlier look at candidates' achievement. The high tension that builds up in the spring could be somewhat reduced. CEEB hopes the test will be ready in two years.

**Six solid subjects a year** is what students in the Advanced Standing Course at Elder Catholic High School in Cincinnati take—and they thrive on it. A sixth of the school's 1,280 students are in the program. Students with I.Q.'s of 115 or better enter the program voluntarily.

## BOOK REVIEWS

INTRODUCTION TO EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH by Carter V. Good.  
New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1959. Pp. xii + 424.

Carter V. Good is Director of Graduate Studies and Dean of Teachers College of the University of Cincinnati. He has produced other works on this general subject, including *Methods of Research*, co-authored by Douglas E. Scates in 1954. Good's new book is intended for "field workers, graduate students in the early stages of their work, and seniors in the undergraduate college." (p. v) The arrangement of chapters is intended to follow "the sequence or steps of reflective thinking or problem-solving," (p. 5), no small assignment when you consider how unruly thinking can become.

Because some patterns of research methodology are shared by psychology, education, sociology, anthropology, and other fields, the author permits himself occasional excursions into fields other than education. This freewheeling approach is doubtless made necessary by the breadth of education as a subject, but it sometimes leads Dr. Good into areas that might better be handled by other types of specialists. For instance, he presents a summary of "the Christian philosophy of history" (p. 147) that would not be accepted by any Catholic or Protestant philosopher known to this reviewer.

The best thing about the book is the great variety of techniques which the author recognizes as having a place in educational research. He points out, for example, that "precision may be in either mathematical or verbal terms," (p. 2) and suggests a broad conception of what research is. He further recognizes that "the most important instrument or element in research is the mind of man." (p. 19) He finds room for discussion of such varied methods and tools as historical analysis, questionnaires, developmental tasks, controlled experiments, case studies, and the like.

Unhappily, the merits of this broad-mindedness are somewhat vitiated by a stylized adherence to the cult of uncertainty. A passage in which the late A. N. Whitehead expresses his delight at having lived through the downfall of many scientific theories is quoted with vigorous approval, as is a passage from Bernard Mehl, who held that "root concepts . . . must be subjected to modification . . ." The implication is that *no* knowledge can ever be final,

which is to say that we never pass from opinion to knowledge. Thus, the main weakness of the book is that it allows no place in research for the a priori, which is important in its own right and also colors scientific induction. Curiously, the author indicates the ideal of research as discovery of law, which he defines as "an order or relation of phenomena that is invariable under the given conditions and permits of no exception in its operation." (p. 78) Such laws are not logically consistent with what Good calls "the fallacy of dogmatic finality."

Another weakness is that the relation between philosophy and science in research is never systematically traced, but is vaguely asserted to be "complementary." (p. 13) But, taking the whole volume in balance, it is a big step in the right direction by comparison with the still-recent time when only the most militantly positivistic techniques were considered to qualify as "research."

ROBERT B. NORDBERG

Department of Education  
Catholic University of America



PRINCIPLES OF COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATION by  
Lloyd S. Woodburne. Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1958.  
Pp. viii + 197. \$5.00.

The writer of this very informative book is the Dean of the College of Arts and Sciences at the University of Washington, Seattle. He is also the author of a companion study entitled *Faculty Personnel Policies in Higher Education*. A background rich in administrative and educational experiences is reflected often in the pages of this work.

Subjects covered include the following: university organization, physical plant and budgetary control, college or school administration, faculty personnel administration, procedures on tenure and promotion, curriculum and teaching, departmental administration, nonacademic personnel, educational priorities and operational research, research work and the graduate school, the dean of students, summer session and adult education. A selected bibliography and an index complete the list of contents.

The brief chapter on the dean of students provides basic data, in-

formational and advisory in character, on an office sometimes misunderstood. A clear outline of the duties of the dean, relationships to the faculty and students, and housing interests is presented. A second highlight is the treatment extended to the nonacademic personnel. This area is considered as an opportunity by the writer for the administration and the faculty especially in the formulation and operation of long range policies governing internal morale and public relations. The section on promotion and tenure gives a good view of the recent changes that have taken place in this important faculty area.

In this review of a book concerned with college and university administration it is important to point out that very little has been written on the subject either in the past or within the postwar years that have seen such a growth in the number of institutions of higher learning. It is precisely because of this scarcity of literature that this contribution by Dean Woodburne is looked upon as a substantial effort to make better known the administrative areas of institutional government.

There are some exploratory questions. Since the officer known as the vice-president or as an assistant to the president has become quite important in recent years—in some institutions there are four or five such officers—why was there only one short reference made to him in the text? Occasional references to support important statements based presumably on recent studies are not cited. What is the reason for the omission? Mention is made of the problem area involving the transition of the older faculty members into the retirement stage and the need on the part of the institution to aid such faculty members in making the adjustment, yet no suggestions are proposed. Would not a few helpful institutional experiences along this line be worth listing? Finally, in view of the new role of the registrar and admissions officer, why was so little emphasis given to the responsibilities of this position?

The work is recommended for administrators and teachers in institutions of higher learning, trustees and members of institutional advisory boards, and graduate students preparing for posts in colleges and universities.

GEORGE F. DONOVAN

Department of Education  
The Catholic University of America

THE CHILD: A BOOK OF READINGS. Edited by Jerome M. Seidman.  
New York: Rhinehart & Co. Inc. 1958. Pp. xiv + 674. \$6.75.

This volume does not consist of articles written specifically for publication as a group but rather the editor, with the assistance of some forty-two other psychologists, has surveyed the literature for articles which he feels are "authoritative and readable." These he has compiled into a book of readings. This has resulted in a poorly integrated and repetitive volume which to some will have important omissions, depending on their interests. There are sixty-five articles grouped into five major divisions and nineteen chapters. Since many of the articles have multiple authorship it is not practical to list the various contributors.

If the format of the book is not studied carefully before reading, one is surprised to find the first article by Anastasi and Foley resurrecting the heredity-environment controversy and relying on many old references. However, when it is noted that the article is ten years old it acquires a different significance. It is easy to agree with these authors that there is great need for clarification in discussions of hereditary and environmental factors. The lack of such clarification in subsequent articles is very obvious. Some of the articles reprinted go back as far as 1933 while others are as recent as 1957. Some of the articles are broad theoretical expositions; others are reports of experiments on rather narrow problems relating to children. Some of these experiments are classics in the field written by widely accepted authorities but others are reports of doctoral or master's theses.

The eight articles which this reviewer found most rewarding deal with theories or principles of development and include those of Anastasi and Foley, Sears, Bayley, Frank, Maslow, Sontag, Ausubel, and Redl. The more limited reports on specific research vary widely in interest and quality. Some are extremely good with broad implications whereas others have only limited interest. A case study reported by Bartlett and Shapiro is one of the outstanding selections.

There is considerable repetition as might be expected in a book of this sort, creating, in one instance, the impression that toilet training is the all consuming development problem and that aggression is the only problem during the period when the child is learning to socialize. Such overemphasis can be placed in proper

perspective by the initiated reader but might be misinterpreted by the more naive.

The book certainly brings together a wealth of material and makes many good studies in child psychology easily accessible. It thus becomes a good source book, a good reference work for both teacher and student in any field of psychology. It is not, however, a book to be recommended to parents as an aid in understanding children.

HELEN E. PEIXOTTO

Department of Psychology  
The Catholic University of America



A TEACHER'S PROFESSIONAL GUIDE by Nolan C. Kearney. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1958. Pp. ix + 358.

"Those who can, do; those who can't, teach." The teaching profession is all the more remarkable because it is considered a profession today. It has come a long way from the days when teaching was considered an occupation for maiden aunts, as the only escape for unmarried daughters, and as a task fit only for those who were "peculiar" in some way. With increased respect for teachers has come a changed attitude toward teaching. It has become one of the "learned" professions. Taking this fact as his starting point, the author of this book runs the gamut of the strengths and weaknesses of the profession. Socrates said, "Know thyself." Dr. Kearney directs the same advice to the teacher of today. If the teacher does not know himself, how can he teach others to know themselves, their capabilities, and limitations?

The author depicts the teacher's world through the eyes of the teacher. In it, almost all the problems faced by teachers are presented together with some very practical advice on how to handle them. Do you want a promotion? What pay scale do you want? What are your legal responsibilities and rights? Do you want to know about social security for teachers? Are you interested in retirement plans? What are the "fringe" benefits of teaching? The answers to all these questions are to be found in this book. Beyond these, such little mentioned items (but long sought after) as leaves of absence and how to get along with supervisors and educa-



tional superiors are discussed in a somewhat wry but practical manner.

One of the most attractive features of the book is "The Experience of Lucille Maxwell, Teacher," which makes up the last chapter. Written in novel form and reading as easily as a novel, it presents the everyday problems of the teacher. Teachers are faced with real situations in real schools and communities. Generalizations about trends and probabilities sometimes seem unreal in the face of personal and professional living. In an attempt to overcome such remoteness, this last chapter has been written in the form of a story in an effort to illustrate some of the materials covered in previous chapters. Miss Maxwell faces, in a brief space of time, almost all the problems a teacher wrestles with during years of teaching. It is a fascinating tale, and for that alone, this book is worth while. You may disagree with Miss Maxwell, but she is never dull.

Lest there be evidence of being "carried away" in this review, a word or two about the author will present more prosaic facts. Nolan C. Kearney is assistant superintendent in charge of research and curriculum in the St. Paul, Minnesota, public schools. His exceptionally broad professional experience has included posts as teacher and superintendent in various small communities, and for the past twenty years as director of teacher in-service education in St. Paul. In addition, he has taught classes in teacher personnel administration at the University of Minnesota and is the author of many articles on teaching problems. He is widely recognized as a leading authority on school law and the legal rights of teachers.

Many teachers who read this book will wince a bit as they see themselves in its pages. More important than that feature, however, will be the solutions to the problems that face them. Written expressly with the public school teacher in mind, this book will be useful for all teachers. It should be read by all for enjoyment as well as practicality and increased knowledge. If books on education are "dry," this is one which is about as fluid as one can be. Read it!

JOHN F. NEVINS

The Catholic University of America



## BOOKS RECEIVED

### *Educational*

- Faerber, Louis J. (ed). *Our Lady in Education*. Dayton, Ohio: University of Dayton, Marian Library. Pp. 208.
- Luke, F.S.C., Brother C. (ed.). *Proceedings of the Fourth Annual Meeting of the Society of Catholic College Teachers of Sacred Doctrine*. St. Mary's College, Notre Dame, Ind.: The Society. Pp. 138.
- McCluskey, S.J., Neil Gerard. *Public Schools and Moral Education*. New York: Columbia University Press. Pp. 315. \$6.00.
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- Amiot, François. *History of the Mass*. Trans. Lancelot C. Sheppard. New York: Hawthorn Books. Pp. 141. \$2.95.
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- Hirschberger, Johannes. *The History of Philosophy*. Volume I. Trans. Rt. Rev. Anthony N. Fuerst. Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Co. Pp. 516. \$8.00.
- Horizon*, Vol. I, No. 3 (January, 1959). New York: American Horizon, Inc. Pp. 144. \$3.95.
- Jacoby, J. E. *Across the Night*. New York: Philosophical Library, Inc. Pp. 110. \$3.75.

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